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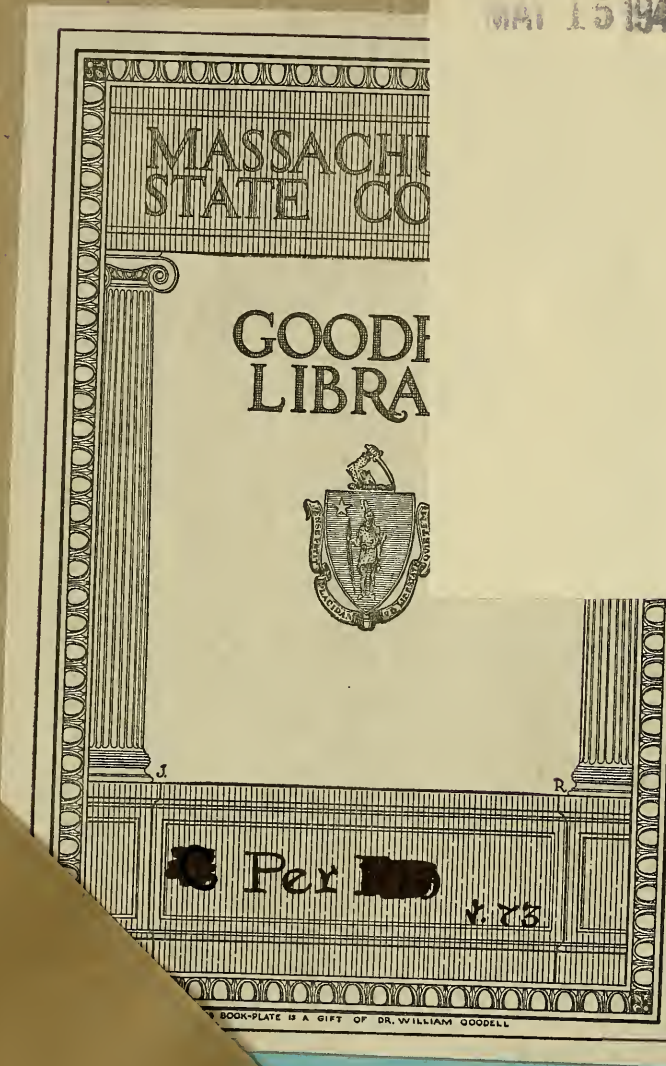
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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Govern-

ing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, agricultural cooperation, juridical matters, and travel, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and a division of intellectual cooperation exists for this purpose. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 90,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



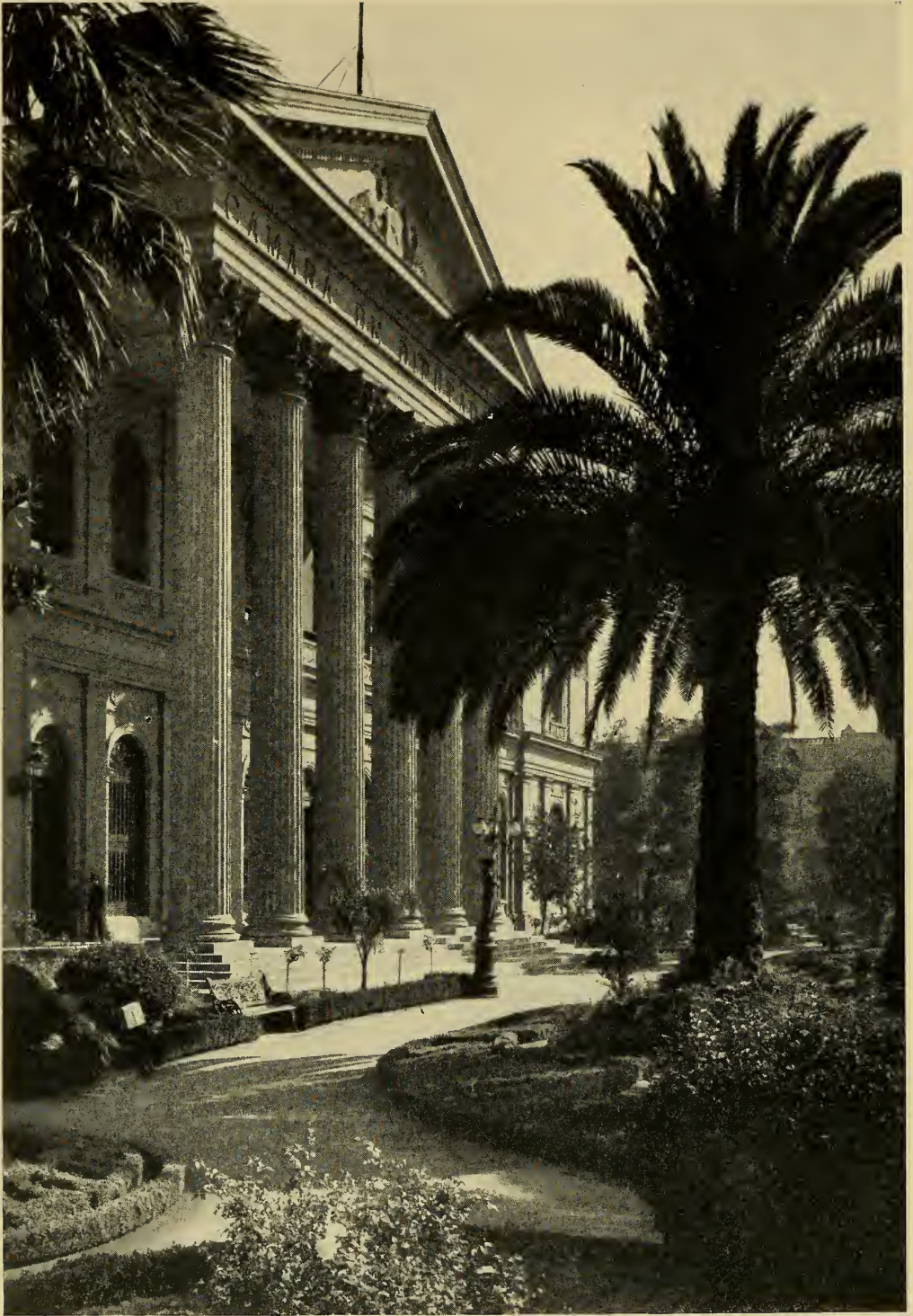
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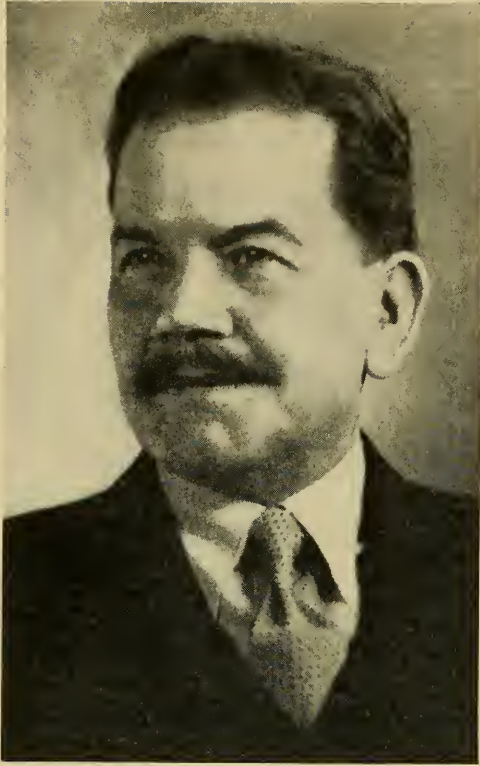
Pedro Aguirre Cerda, the new President of Chile

THE NEW PRESIDENT OF CHILE, who took office December 24, 1938 for a six-year term, is first and foremost an educator. He has also held a number of public offices, including the portfolio of Minister of Justice and Public Education, and that of the Ministry of the Interior, to which he has been appointed three times, beginning in 1920. At the time of his election on October 25, 1938, he was Dean of the School of Industry and Commerce of the University of Chile, which was created at his suggestion in 1934.

The inauguration of President Aguirre Cerda was made the occasion for a great popular demonstration. Special trains brought thousands of residents from the provinces into the capital and the streets of the city were packed with enthusiastic throngs taking advantage of the warm summer weather and the patriotic holiday. Santiago was at its best. "Except for Rio," Bryce well said, "no capital in the world has a more striking position. Stand-

ing in the great central valley of Chile, it looks out on one side over a fertile plain to the wooded slopes of the Coast Range, and on the other looks up to the gigantic chain of the Cordillera, rising nineteen thousand feet above it, furrowed by deep glens into which glaciers pour down, with snowy wastes behind. At Santiago, as at Innsbruck, one sees the vista of a long, straight street closed by towering mountains that crown it with white as the sea crowns with blue the streets of Venice. But here the mountains are more than twice as high as those of the Tyrolean city and they never put off their snowy vesture. Wherever one walks or drives through the city, in the beautiful public park and on the large open grounds of the race-course, these fields of ice are always before the eye, whether wreathed with cloud or glittering against an ardent sky."

To the inauguration, which took place in the beautiful capitol, thirty-one countries sent specially appointed delegations.



PEDRO AGUIRRE CERDA

The diplomatic corps, Congress, and government officials were fully represented at the ceremony when the new President took the oath of office and was invested with the tri-colored band which is the symbol of the Chief Executive of Chile.

Pedro de Aguirre Cerda was born in Los Andes on February 6, 1879, the son of Juan Bautista Aguirre Campos and Clarisa Cerda Escudero de Aguirre. On finishing his secondary schooling he entered first the teachers' college, and later the law school, of the University of Chile, receiving his diploma as professor of Spanish and philosophy in 1900 and his law degree in 1904. After teaching in a school for non-

commissioned army officers, he became an instructor in civics, Spanish and philosophy in secondary schools and subsequently inspector of secondary schools and professor of political economy in the University of Chile. As a member of the Commercial Education Council and of the Councils on University, Secondary and Primary Education he rendered valuable services to the country. He also was appointed to numerous commissions connected with the Ministry of Finance.

As a result of his increasing interest in commercial and financial questions, Señor Aguirre Cerda was commissioned in 1910 by the government to study administrative and financial law in the University of Paris. During his stay in Europe he represented Chile at a number of conferences, notably educational meetings held in France, Italy and Belgium.

In 1915, Señor Cerda's political career began with his election as Deputy for Los Andes. In 1918 he was again elected to Congress, this time representing Santiago, and in the same year he entered the cabinet as Minister of Justice and Public Education. Three years later he was chosen Senator for Concepción, in the meantime having again occupied a place in the cabinet. Two more journeys abroad in 1919 and 1924 extended his knowledge of industrial education in the United States and of conditions in Europe. As a result of the latter trip he wrote and published two books entitled respectively *El Problema Agrario* and *El Problema Industrial*. In 1930 he was chairman of the Council of Fiscal Defense.

Señor Aguirre Cerda was elected President as the candidate of the Popular Front. He is affiliated with the Radical Party, of which he has long been a prominent member and leader.

Medical and Health Aspects of Social Security in Latin America

Argentina

SOCIAL SECURITY LAWS have not been enacted as yet in Argentina, although a far-reaching social security and welfare bill, introduced by the Government in August, 1934, which died in committee, created a social welfare fund, amended the pension and retirement systems, regulated social security for certain social groups, and authorized the Executive to draw up a general law instituting sickness and old age insurance.

The present provision for social welfare includes: A national system of workmen's compensation for industrial accidents and occupational diseases; national maternity insurance; and various national, provincial, and municipal systems (funds), of retirement and pensions, all very similar, which include only a minimum part of the insurable population. The supervision of the workmen's compensation system is a function of the National Department of Labor, under the Ministry of the Interior.

The Industrial Accident Fund (*Caja de Accidentes del Trabajo*) is affiliated with the National Fund of Civil Retirement and Pensions (*Caja Nacional de Jubilaciones y Pensiones Civiles*), acting as a disbursing office and administrator of funds.

Maternity Fund (Caja de Maternidad).—Created in accordance with Law No. 11933 of October 15, 1934, and regulated by Decree No. 80229 of April 15, 1936, the Maternity Fund functions as a section of

the National Civil Retirement and Pension Fund. All women employees of commercial or industrial establishments are required to enroll in maternity insurance, provided they are between 15 and 45 years of age. The insured are entitled to free assistance from a physician or midwife, and to an allowance during 30 days previous to and 45 days after confinement. The allowance equals two and a half months' salary. The Maternity Fund is made up of quarterly contributions from the employees, the employers, and the Government, fines for infractions of the Maternity Law, and legacies and donations. The quarterly contribution of the workers is equivalent to one day's work.

The National Retirement and Pension Funds include principally: Retirement and Pension of Civil Employees (*Jubilaciones y Pensiones de Empleados Civiles*); Railway Employees (*Empleados Ferroviarios*); Employees of Private Public Utility Enterprises (*Empleados y Obreros de Empresas Particulares de Servicios Públicos*); and Bank Employees (*Empleados Bancarios*). These various funds are essentially for retirement after years of service, and also cover the risks of sickness, old age, and death, by means of temporary or life pensions. They also include aid during unemployment—pensions or return of contributions—but none as yet has complete illness insurance. They all function by collective capitalization, with contributions from the insured and the employers, but not from the State unless it is the employer; they take into consideration services rendered before their creation,

Memorandum prepared by the Pan American Sanitary Bureau for presentation to the Tenth Pan American Sanitary Conference, held in Bogotá, September 4-18, 1938; with some later data.

as well as in enterprises affiliated with different funds. With the exception of the National Fund of Civil Retirement and Pensions, the funds make secured loans (and some, personal loans also) to their members.

Brazil

The Constitution of Brazil, promulgated in 1937, states in Article 127 that "Childhood and youth must be the object of special care and guarantee on the part of the State, which will take all measures to assure them physical and moral conditions of healthy life and the harmonious development of their faculties. . . . Indigent parents have the right to invoke the aid and protection of the State for the maintenance and education of their offspring." Article 137 provides medical and health assistance to workers and pregnant women, assuring the latter rest before and after confinement, without loss of pay (subsection *l*), and prohibits child labor (subsection *k*).

In order to fulfill the requirements of the Constitution on social welfare, a tariff of 2 percent on imported articles, except food and wheat, was established. This "Social Welfare Tax", added to the amount of the 2 percent collected on the interest paid by savings banks of the State, forms the "Social Welfare Quota" which will figure annually in the budget of the Ministry of Labor, Industry and Commerce, as "Social Welfare." The amount of the quota will be deposited in the Bank of Brazil, and will serve to pay the Federal Government's contribution to the Funds and Institutions of Retirement and Pensions in an amount equal to the sum of the contributions of the various employees.

In Brazil there has been created since 1923 a series of funds (at present there are six) providing pensions in the case of disability, old age, and death, as well as loans during illness. The supervision of

these institutions is a function of the National Labor Council. The oldest fund, dating from 1923 and expanded in 1931, includes railway, port, and public utility employees. Each enterprise has its own fund, to the number of 178, although efforts are being made to reduce the number by mergers. The other systems, founded since 1933, are organized on a different basis, each one representing a profession: commercial employees, sailors, bank employees, stevedores, and store employees. The total membership in 1935 was 495,363; the number of holders of disability and old age pensions, 13,759 and of those holding survivors' pensions, 17,102. The capital of the various funds was estimated at 496,328 contos in 1935. During the same year the total expenditures amounted to 67,327 contos: old age pensions, 29,579; disability, 14,621; survivors, 12,895; medical and hospital loans, 10,010; other loans, 222. The budget approved by the National Labor Council for 1936 for 161 funds and four institutions included income of 322,584 contos and expenditure of 127,120.

The National Labor Council has delegated to a special committee the organization of the plan for sickness and maternity insurance on a triple-contribution basis: employer, employee, and the State. The plan now being studied includes all the active and retired members and their families, as well as the pensioners of the funds or institutes of retirement and pensions. The benefits proposed include medical, hospital, and pharmaceutical aid to the insured and their families, and sickness and maternity benefits. With regard to the contributions for this new insurance plan, the collection and payment of the benefits will be handled by the various funds or institutes, while the furnishing of medical services, etc., will be a function of regional medico-social

institutions maintained by the funds and institutions, which will centralize all such services at present maintained by said institutions. A new scientific medico-social division of the National Labor Council will be created, to supervise the medico-social institutes. The employer, employee and State will contribute to this new social security, with the smallest burden falling on the employee.

In Brazil, as in other American countries, there is a workmen's compensation law covering industrial accidents and occupational diseases, which is based on the doctrine of professional risk and applies to more than 2,000,000 persons in the country.

Cuba

Maternity and health insurance.—A law of December 15, 1937, amending and amplifying the laws of 1934 and 1935 on the same subject, created Maternity and Health Insurance. The employment of women during the first weeks following confinement is prohibited, and while absent from work, a woman will receive from the Maternity and Health Fund (Fondo de Salud y Maternidad) a pension (1.25 to 4 pesos daily) which shall equal the salary or wage received in her normal work. The fund will be made up of contributions of $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 percent of the salaries, wages and commissions received by employees; $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 percent of the total payroll, paid by employers, and the fines, fees, and other penalties prescribed by the laws. In addition to the pension, every working mother has the right to be attended by the physician or midwife of her choice, fees to be paid by the Health Fund. Every worker who has contributed for 10 months may have his wife registered on the Health and Maternity roll, to receive 25 pesos in case of confinement. In order to receive benefits, women must have contributed for 5 months of 26 days each during the two

previous years, or in the case of temporary or by-the-job work, made payments on earnings totaling at least 104 pesos, part of them within the six months preceding the claim. The Government has been studying for some time a social security project.

Chile

Chile was the first American country to establish compulsory social security. Since it has been in operation there longer than in any other American republic and includes a relatively large proportion of the population, considerable space is given here to its creation and functioning, as well as to certain proposed reforms.

Law No. 4054 of September 8, 1924 (definitive text fixed January 22, 1926), established sickness and disability insurance in Chile.

The insured.—Sickness and disability insurance is obligatory for every person under 75 years of age who ordinarily has no other means of income or subsistence than the salary paid by his employer, provided it is not in excess of 8,000 pesos annually. Workers, artisans and artists who work independently, small industrialists, and regular street vendors are also subject to the law. Persons belonging to a mutual aid society furnishing an equivalent service are exempted. Persons under 45 whose income does not exceed the maximum, and who ordinarily do not come under the law, may adhere to it voluntarily.

Administration.—The law is administered by a body controlling a Central Fund (Caja Central) and local funds established in the capitals of Departments. The direction and administration of the local funds are entrusted to a council composed of nine persons: three elected by the insured, three by the employers, and three appointed by the President of the Republic.

Resources.—The insurance is financed



THE CHILEAN SOCIAL SECURITY BOARD OCCUPIES A SKYSCRAPER

Chile is the American Republic in which social security laws have been in operation for the longest time and have the widest scope.

through: (1) the quotas paid by the insured, the employers, and the State; (2) fines for violations of the social security law; (3) fines for violations of the sanitary code; (4) interest on the capital of the funds and income from their property, legacies and donations; (5) product of a 1 percent tax on payments (with certain exceptions) made by the State or municipalities; and (6) an additional tax on insurance companies whose headquarters and capital are not located in the country,

equivalent to 2 percent of the company's gross income for new or renewed policies, except life insurance policies, which pay 1 percent.

Families of the insured.—Insured persons who wish the fund's medical and pharmaceutical aid extended to their families pay it an additional 5 percent of their income, wages, or salary. Employers and the State contribute nothing in this case.

Quotas.—Quotas are paid on the last business day of each week, the insured paying 2, the employer 3, and the State 1 percent of the weekly salary or wage of each person insured.

Benefits.—The following benefits are extended to the insured by the fund: (a) Medical assistance, including medicines and treatment, from the first day of illness for 26 weeks, extensible to a year; (b) money benefit during incapacity to the insured having a family; if the insured has no family he is entitled to but half the benefit; (c) professional attendance on insured women during pregnancy, childbirth and puerperium, and benefit equal to 50 percent of the wage or salary during the two weeks preceding and following confinement, and 25 percent during a later period until weaning, not to exceed 8 months; (d) 300 pesos to be given the family of the insured in case of his death, for funeral expenses; (e) a disability pension; and (f) a retirement pension.

The Compulsory Sickness, Disability and Old Age Insurance Fund (Caja de Seguro Obligatorio de Enfermedad, Invalidez y Vejez) today has some 800,000 members (population of Chile, 4,600,000 inhabitants). The receipts increased gradually from 50,395,000 pesos in 1926 to 96,597,000 pesos in 1929 and 105,649,000 in 1935–36. The respective expenditures, including those for administration, were 16,032,000, 40,324,000, and 89,423,000 pesos. Medical services have been con-

solidated into a department, with the following divisions: Medical Secretariat, Medical Inspections, Pharmacy and Supplies, Preventive Medicine, Mother and Child, Tuberculosis, Venereal Disease, and Dental. The plan of action includes the following principal activities, which will be developed gradually: Protection of mother and child, with attendance to the insured mother and the wife of the insured man during pregnancy and to his children up to the age of two years; venereal disease campaign, furnishing methods of diagnosis, treating the insured, his wife and relatives, and establishing preventive services; tuberculosis campaign, creating clinics; protection to the worker by periodic heart examinations; inspection of working conditions, and the securing of employment for the worker in accordance with his physical constitution and health condition. In 1935 the fund had 141 clinics (many with complete specialty services); 277 aid stations throughout the country; 116 rural medical stations; 35 homes rented from the National Welfare Department in which the insured were hospitalized; two tuberculosis sanatoriums; 4 preventoriums; 3 treatment centers; 1 emergency hospital, and a readaptation (rehabilitation) center. The cost of hospitalization during 1934 fluctuated from a maximum of 31.60 pesos daily per patient in the Calbuco Hospital to a minimum of 1.71 in the Vallenar Hospital, averaging 8.23 during 1933. The cost of the medical supplies for clinics and affiliated services was 3,258,062.21 pesos in 1933, 4,255,071.25 in 1934, and 5,512,073.09 in 1935; of medicines given to the insured, 1,919,695.89 in 1932; 3,092,097.28 in 1933, and 3,983,500.70 in 1935. The fund spent in medical aid during the fiscal year 1935-36, 94,262,092.97 pesos, compared with 16,982,797.17 in 1933; and in hospitalization, 12,325,970.99, com-

pared with 5,928,502.01. The medical personnel in 1935 included: 550 physicians, 79 dentists, 77 pharmacists, 54 visiting nurses, 77 midwives, and 7,550 subordinate employees.

By the end of 1937, assets amounted to more than 453 million pesos, and the accumulated funds to more than 392 million (an increase of 25 million over the previous year). During the last half of 1937, more than 41,500,000 pesos were spent in medical attention and benefits to the insured.

The fund has also established a Children's Bureau, a Milk Center (for pasteurization) in Santiago organized on an independent basis, and pharmaceutical laboratories. Although it began the construction of low-cost dwellings for insured persons, it has at present suspended this activity pending more detailed study.

In Chile there exist, in addition to the Compulsory Sickness, Disability and Old Age Insurance Fund, other social security funds (for public employees, newspaper employees, day laborers in Santiago, municipal employees in Santiago and Valparaiso, national guard, municipal employees of the Republic, and various private societies), and funds for industrial accident insurance. The total number of persons enrolled in such funds, including the National Compulsory Insurance Fund, was 1,301,000 at the end of 1937, and the total receipts for that year, 450 million pesos. The total funds accumulated by the end of 1937 amounted to 1,740 million pesos.

Proposed reforms.—In the application of the law certain defects have been found in regard to the risks of disability, old age and death. The modifications studied by the Social Welfare Bureau (Departamento de Provisión Social) and formulated in the draft of a law are the following:

Sickness insurance is to be extended to the family, the only way of exercising

efficient preventive action. Sickness insurance will cover the cost of general and special medical, dental, and pharmaceutical supplies and appliances, the cost of hospitalization and treatment in a suitable establishment, and the necessary travel and surgical expenditures of the insured, his wife (provided always that she does not have an income or salary), and his legitimate and recognized illegitimate children, under 16 years of age, who receive no wage. Medical attention is to be rendered by a capable physician employed by the fund, and those insured who have been affiliated at least 24 weeks and have paid at least four weekly quotas in the eight weeks prior to illness are entitled to such attention. Insured persons unable to work because of illness, who have paid at least 24 weekly quotas immediately previous to the illness, would be entitled, beginning with the third day of sickness, to a daily allowance equal to 50 percent of the wages or the average daily income as calculated from the last 24 weekly quotas, for a period of six months, extensible to a year.

Under this plan insured women and the wives of insured persons having at least one year of affiliation with the fund have the right to medical and pharmaceutical attention during pregnancy and for 6 months after confinement, and to an allowance of 50 percent of their salary or wages during the 6 weeks previous to confinement and the 6 weeks following, provided that they cease all remunerative work during this period and have paid a minimum of 24 weekly quotas immediately previous to confinement.

Insured persons who have paid at least 100 weekly quotas may receive, after the illness allowances have ceased, a disability pension, upon certification by a physician that they suffer from an affection or disability that reduces their work-

ing capacity at least two-thirds. This would include disability from accidents not covered under the provisions for industrial accidents. This pension is planned to be provisional during the first 5 years, during which period the insured must submit to the examinations and treatment indicated by the fund; the pension will be discontinued if the person recovers more than 50 percent of his ability to work, and will become a permanent pension if the capacity remains under 50 percent. The pension shall be 30 percent of the salary based on the first 100 weekly quotas, increased 1 percent for each 40 weekly quotas above 100, up to a total of 60 percent. It may not be less than 90 pesos monthly, plus 20 pesos monthly for each child under 12 entirely supported by the invalid, but in no case is it to exceed 100 percent of the basic salary.

The old-age pension plan was radically revised as to its financial handling and according to proposals the fund would be collective, instead of consisting of individual accounts. Insured persons 55 years of age who had paid 1,400 weekly quotas would be entitled to a pension consisting of 60 percent of their basic salary, plus 1 percent for each 40 quotas in excess of 1,400, to a maximum of 75 percent of the salary. Insured persons 65 years of age who had paid at least 600 quotas would receive a pension consisting of 30 percent of the salary based on the first 600 quotas plus 1 percent for each 40 weekly quotas in excess of this number, to a maximum of 75 percent of the basic salary. The old-age pension would be not less than 90 pesos monthly, plus 20 pesos monthly for each dependent child under 12, but would not exceed 100 percent of the basic salary.

At the death of insured persons who had paid at least 200 weekly quotas their legitimate, natural, or recognized illegitimate

children, under 16 or invalids, would be entitled to pensions, temporary for those under 16 and life-long for invalids. If the insured who dies is the father, the pension, to be distributed equally among the beneficiaries, would be 30 percent of the basic salary (based on the first 200 weekly quotas), plus 1 percent for each 40 weekly quotas over 200, to a maximum of 60 percent of the basic salary. If the insured mother dies and the father is already dead, the pension would be calculated in the same manner. Orphans' pensions would be not less than 30 pesos monthly for each beneficiary, except that the total would not exceed 60 percent of the basic salary.

The payment of 300 pesos to the family of the deceased insured for funeral expenses would continue as in the present law; if the insured has no family, the fund would take direct charge of the funeral and burial expenses.

Insured persons leaving the fund to come under another social insurance scheme will receive a transfer of their personal contributions. The heirs of insured persons who die without leaving rights to orphans' pensions may claim the contribution of such persons.

Resources.—It is proposed to finance the plan as follows: In order to improve the old age pension and part of the orphans' pension, the contribution from the worker is to be raised from 2 to 3 percent of the salary. The quota of the employer is raised from 3 to 5 percent. The Government's contribution, at present 1 percent of the salaries, is to be 50 percent of the employer's quota. Certain special measures are contemplated, including increasing to 2 percent the tax on payments made by the State and municipalities; creation of a 2 percent tax on maritime freight; and an increase of 20 percent, for the benefit of the Security Fund, in the taxes

now levied on tobacco, cigarettes, and cigars, and alcohol, liquors, wine, and beer.

Retirement funds.—In Chile there are also various retirement and pension funds: Public employees, newspaper employees, the national guard, private employees, the merchant marine, the national defense forces, municipal employees of Santiago, etc.

Social welfare preventive service.—By a law signed January 31, 1938, by the President of Chile, all social security funds under the Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare shall establish services of preventive medicine, in order to guard the health of their members and to adopt measures to impede the development of chronic diseases such as tuberculosis, syphilis, rheumatism, cardiac diseases, nephritic afflictions, and occupational diseases such as lead poisoning, pneumoconiosis (anthracosis), silicosis, ankylostomiasis, etc. Health examinations of the workers, as well as preventive treatments, will be made by physicians of the various funds. In each province there shall be a medical commission with three members, one named by the President of the Republic, one by the employers, and one by the insured. This commission shall coordinate the work of the funds and the Industrial Medicine Division of the National Health Bureau. The commission or a physician appointed by it shall determine the type of preventive rest needed by each insured person. For the purposes of the law, a tax of 1 percent on salaries and wages shall be levied on employers. In addition, the funds shall set aside for this purpose not more than 2.5 percent of their receipts, the respective councils being empowered to decrease as much as 30 percent the amount kept in the current account for contributors. The President of the Republic is empowered to increase as much as 50 percent any or all of the above-mentioned taxes, provided that the results of the law are satisfactory, the funds suffi-

cient, and the industry in question can stand an increased levy. Without prejudice to preventive rest, the insured may apply for the benefits of the laws on sick leave, the commission to determine which would be of greater value from the viewpoint of future health. The right to a preventive rest day is not renunciatory and the worker subjected to this régime may not engage in any other kind of remunerative work.

Ecuador

Social security was established in Ecuador by a law of 1935, which created the National Institute of Social Welfare (Instituto Nacional de Previsión) for the purpose of setting up compulsory social security and stimulating voluntary insurance. The new law does not exonerate employers from their previous responsibility for occupational risks, but they may be insured against such risk by payment of a special premium. The institute will then take charge of the services and pay the compensation provided by law. Social insurance is administered through the Pension Fund (Caja de Pensiones) created in 1928, and similar funds of later date. All public and private wage earners and salaried persons are subject to the compulsory insurance law. The Private Employees and Workers Insurance Fund (Caja del Seguro de Empleados Privados y Obreros) has been functioning since March 31, 1937. It protects its members with old age, disability, life, and sickness insurance. The insured have a right to medical attendance after 12 payments. Forty percent of the employers' contribution, 20 percent of the interest from the investments of the fund, and a similar proportion of other income of the fund are devoted to social protection services, among which preventive and curative medicine is very important.

All private employees and workers in

industries, factories and shops, with the exception of agricultural workers (whose inclusion is being studied), are compelled to be members of the Insurance Fund (Caja de Seguro). There are no limitations on age, sex, or state of health for these compulsory members. The fund notifies the employers, and those receiving the notification and their employees are automatically considered as affiliated. Voluntary members are also admitted with the approval of the medical department of the fund, after clinical, laboratory, and X-ray examination. Their age limit has been provisionally fixed at 45, while the tables of quotas for higher ages are under consideration. The individual must be affiliated six months before he is entitled to medical benefits. Medical services cannot be extended for more than three months for the same disease. Affiliated persons having a salary or wage less than 3,000 sucres annually enjoy complete and free service; those who earn from 3,000 to 6,000 yearly have to pay a reduced fee which amounts practically to the cost; and those who receive more than 6,000 sucres annually pay a higher rate. In the case of industrial accidents and occupational diseases, the employer either furnishes medical attention or pays a special fee for that requested from the medical department of the fund.

Although the number of registrations since the fund was established is more than 90,000, some were withdrawn for various reasons, so that the number of affiliated persons at present enjoying the benefit of the law is 78,125: 65,429 men, 13,573 women, and 234 children; voluntary members number 184.

The medical department furnishes two kinds of service: Preventive medicine and curative medicine. Preventive medical services are rendered in dispensaries which prepare individual health records by means of complete examinations. By April

30, 1938, 1,468 records had been made. Furthermore, the workers' living conditions are studied, and the management of the fund informed as to the advisability and manner of carrying out social hygiene and health projects, such as workers' building developments, collective housing, health services, etc. The preventive dispensaries also issue certificates of aptitude for various professions, after medical examination. The curative medical service includes: (a) Professional aid—medical, surgical, and dental, in dispensaries located in cities and working centers; (b) hospitalization, either in its own hospitals or in those belonging to the Public Welfare Bureau, with medical, surgical, and maternity attention; and (c) cash allowances, when the fund cannot render the services requested and the insured has a salary or wage less than 2,400 sucres annually. Members of the family requesting medical aid are attended on payment of a preferential fee equivalent to the cost.

To fulfill these objectives, the medical department now has three preventive dispensaries,—in Quito, Guayaquil, and Cuenca; 17 polyclinic dispensaries located in various parts of the country; and 10 hospitals in which the fund either maintains special services or makes a payment for its members. The fund has begun building its own clinics in the principal cities. The number of hospital beds available is 194. The fund also has portable equipment for traveling medical and dental services away from the centers of population. For these services the fund uses 40 percent of the contributions from employers (some 80,000 sucres monthly), 20 percent of the income from productive investments of individual contributions, and a sum appropriated by the National Institute of Social Welfare from property of those dying intestate.

The scientific personnel includes a chief

physician, 29 physicians, 30 nurses, a chief of the dental service, 13 dentists, 4 radiologists, a laboratory physician, two laboratory assistants, and two internes.

Funds for this insurance plan were originally made up of a contribution by the Government of 30 percent of the income tax; the revenue from a postage stamp for the social security of the peasant, and an inheritance tax, but through an agreement with the Government, in place of these contributions the sum of 350,000 sucres will be appropriated annually by the Government. By a special law, the fund is to receive the entire amount of the property of persons dying intestate, which to date has brought in 959,775.31 sucres. Employers contribute 5 percent of the salary or wages earned by the insured, which in 1937 amounted to 538,445.69 sucres, and in the first three months of 1938 to 740,075.01; and the insured pay 5 percent of their salary or wages, in the case of compulsory insurance, and 10 percent in the case of voluntary members, which in 1937 amounted to 1,525,033.82 sucres, and in the first quarter of 1938 to 742,769.15. After the second year of operation, the extension of sickness insurance to the families of the insured and cash allowances in the case of temporary incapacity from non-occupational sickness will be studied.

Peru

A law of 10 chapters and 76 articles, promulgated in Lima August 12, 1936, authorized the Executive to establish compulsory social insurance to cover the risks of illness, maternity, disability, old age, and death, and to apply to all persons under 60 and over 14 who work for an employer and whose annual wage or salary does not exceed 3,000 gold soles, as well as homeworkers and those in domestic service, except persons already affiliated with



Courtesy of Dr. Rebagliati

SOCIAL SECURITY BUILDING IN LIMA

The Peruvian social security law went into effect in 1936.

a special retirement fund, and certain employees, such as those of the State, welfare societies, etc. The insured man may obtain family insurance to cover obstetrical attention to his wife and medical and hospital aid to his children under 14. Illness benefits include medical and hospital assistance, pharmaceutical service, and cash allowances not exceeding 50 percent of the salary, for a period of 26 to 52 weeks. During 36 days previous to and 36 days after confinement, the insured woman will receive an allowance equal to 50 percent of her salary or wage, and after confinement, for not more than 8 months, a nursing allowance of 25 percent. Insured persons suffering from a non-occupational disease or injury not sustained in an industrial accident, which reduces their capacity for work two-thirds, and insured persons over 60 years of age shall receive a pension of 40 to 60 percent of their respective salary or wage, and a person having a spouse 60 years of age or children under 14 is entitled

to an increase of from 1 to 10 percent of the pension. On the death of an insured person, the heirs will receive a sum equal to 50 percent of the annual salary or wage.

Collections from the employer's quota increased in Lima and Callao from 31,298.13 soles in March to 88,526.60 in June 1937, and in other departments and provinces included in Law No. 8433, the quota of the State for June represented 131,407.83 soles, corresponding to 1 percent of the salaries on which the employers paid a 2 percent quota. In June 1937 the collection of the taxes created by the law in favor of the Fund produced 73,668.86 soles. The insured registered reached 129,955 on July 1 (population of Peru, 6,147,000 inhabitants), and the taxes collected to that date amounted to 573,597.36 soles in employers' quotas, and 700,281.78 in special taxes, to which should be added the contribution of the State. The Bureau of Social Research has concluded a study regarding conditions and methods of agri-

cultural work in several provinces, and has collected important actuarial and scientific-statistical data on various phases of insurance, while the Bureau of Health and Social Welfare has prepared a plan for organizing the clinics of the fund, covering location and installation of necessary medical services. A plan for welfare services in the field is likewise being prepared. Under the title of *Informaciones Sociales*, the fund publishes a monthly journal, explaining the objects, principles, technique, legal regulations and organization of Peruvian social security.

Uruguay

Sickness insurance does not yet exist in Uruguay, although a bill drawn up in 1933 contemplated its introduction on a national basis in the sphere of action of the present Retirement and Pension Institute (Instituto de Pensiones y Jubilaciones). The institute today includes the following organizations: Industry, Commerce and Public Utilities Fund; Civil Retirement and Pension Fund; Teachers' Retirement and Pension Fund; and the National Old-Age Pension Institute. There also exists in the country a system of compensation for industrial accidents founded, like others, on the principle of occupational risk. On December 31, 1937, the capital of the Industry, Commerce and Public Utility Fund was 87,214,870.03 pesos; the receipts in that year reached 22,703,290 pesos; the number of affiliated enterprises was 63,702; the total number of members,

222,622; there were granted 15,789 retirements and 4,975 pensions, amounting to 10,386,000 and 1,773,000 pesos respectively. In the Civil Retirement and Pension Fund the receipts were 8,318,224.21 pesos and the expenditures 10,219,972.31, for 10,205 retirements amounting to 597,629.18 pesos monthly, and 7,391 pensions amounting to 199,926.11 pesos monthly. The receipts of the Teachers' Retirement Fund were 2,376,624.64 pesos, and the expenditures 2,312,870.90; 157 new retirements and 13 pensions were granted. The National Old-Age Pension Institute granted in the same year 1,646 pensions, the receipts amounting to 3,258,996.58 pesos and the expenditures to 3,230,540.20.

Other Republics

In other American republics, including Cuba, Mexico and Venezuela, social security projects are being considered.

Meanwhile, in other countries besides those in which the subject was mentioned in passing, the principle of workmen's compensation for occupational accidents and diseases is followed, and there are also provisions for retirement and pensions, especially for public employees.

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Treasure Chests of the Spanish Main

Fishery Banks of Campeche and Yucatan

A. H. BLACKISTON

THE WATERS of the Spanish Main have long been the scene of strange occurrences in the history of man. They have seen the pirogues of the early Mayas, the caravels of discoverers and conquistadores, the great galleons of the plate fleets carrying the treasures of the New World to the coffers of the Old, the low-lying craft of the buccancers and the furtive sails of the smuggler. Bordered by coral beaches with their graceful palms, dotted here and there with coral cays, the blue waters flash in the sunlight or lie calm and silent in the tropic night.

Upon these shores lost civilizations once flared in mystic brilliance, then sank into darkness again; today forgotten temples and palaces sleep in the jungle's depths among the giant ceibas and corozas palms. Walled cities, with their ancient turrets and towers, look out across the brilliant seas, a reminder of the days when these waters throbbed with life and the Brethren of the Coast sailed undaunted to sack and burn.

Tales of buried treasure abound, and on many a deserted cay or in a secluded nook of the mainland the fortunate searcher has brought to light golden doubloons or pieces-of-eight buried there in the strenuous days that have gone. Yet literally before eyes that could not see and within reach of hands that failed to grasp, passed in untold myriads the swimming gold of the sea, far greater than the output of all the mines put together.

Here it is that the magic of the southlands works its strongest, and the alchemy of the Past exerts the greatest influence upon the romance of the Present.

Where the warm waters of the Caribbean pour through the broad strait of Yucatan into the Gulf of Mexico, they are carried by the Gulf Stream across the extensive shallows lying north and west of the Yucatan peninsula. These great submerged areas are really portions of the mainland itself, though covered with from six to a hundred fathoms of water. At the northern edge, the sea bottom drops sheer to a depth of two miles to form the somber Sigsbee Deep, in the abysses of which, where the pressure is two tons to the square inch, swim weird fish with their phosphorescent torches glowing in the eternal darkness.

Throughout this favored section extend the great sea meadows, as they are sometimes called, where plankton, as the infusorial growths that are the base of all marine life are known, exists in vast quantities because of favorable conditions of sun, sea, and climate. Here also, just as land animals seek the rich terrestrial pastures, come hordes of fish to feed and spawn. Species unknown outside of the tropics make their permanent habitat within the favorable depths of the southern seas.

These rich fishing grounds are known as the banks of Campeche and Yucatan. They have an extreme extent of approximately 350 miles from east to west, and over 100 miles from north to south. Their northern boundary is less than 400 miles due south of the mouth of the Mississippi Valley, and steamship lines to various portions of America and Europe plow



Photo by A. H. Blackiston

LOOKING ACROSS THE FISHING BANKS OF CAMPECHE

their sunlit waves, while round-the-world vessels pass along their eastern border. Little-known coral islands lie off the sandy shores—lonely cays that saw many a wild night under the guns of pirate craft as the drunken crews caroused on shore, dividing the blood-stained loot or gambling for the shrinking captives.

Convenient lairs they also were from which to dash forth upon the laden galleons or laboring caravels, while in the dead of a moonless night treasure was often buried among the white sands that some day it might be brought forth to purchase the delights of the flesh in the corrupt purlieus of Tortuga or Port Royal—pleasures that often were never realized, as much of

the hidden loot was left to lie where it was buried, and doubtless still is sleeping there, though some has come to light in other times and other hands.

On the western portion of the Campeche banks stretch the coral cays of the Arcas, the Arenas and the Triángulos with their flashing lights gleaming across the darkened waters, for the Mexican government has carefully safeguarded navigation with modern equipment and efficient personnel. One of the most heroic of its lighthouse keepers is the famous Julio de Alba, who has a record probably unsurpassed in any similar service in the world for continuously efficient service and the number of men of ship-wrecked crews he has saved.

Rearing his family on these isolated cays, out of touch with mankind sometimes for months at a time, he is doctor, surgeon, teacher and father, as well as guardian of the coral coasts. Some of the members of this picturesque community have never seen the mainland, only hearing of the great world beyond the glittering waters when an occasional fishing boat or lighthouse tender drops anchor or when battered sailors are rescued from the billows by the indomitable Julio. Never has he failed to save his man even when the wild storms thunder out of the north and break upon surf-girt shores.

About 66 miles off the north coast of Yucatan lie the Alacrán cays with their grim barrier reef eighteen miles in extent, stretching in a giant arc that protects them from the winter storms. They were a favorite buccaneer haunt in olden days, as scattered doubloons and pieces-of-eight recovered from time to time bear witness.

Near the northeast point of the peninsula lies the island of Contoy and its ample harbor. Here one may look forth upon the sunrise seas, conjuring up memories of the first landing of the Spaniards nearby upon these shores. Mujeres, an old rendezvous of Lafitte a little to the south, is, strictly speaking, not on the banks; it is larger and higher than the other islands, with a rock-rimmed harbor once fortified by that dashing buccaneer. Evidently, in still earlier days, it was a holy place like Cozumel, "The Island of Swallows," still further to the south, as the name Mujeres arises from the fact that large numbers of female idols were found by the conquistadors in the temples there.

The Gulf Stream here enters the Gulf of Mexico through the Yucatan passage. Every temperature of water is present, the Gulf Stream affording one variation, the sea outside of it another, the cooler zones always being present at a depth of a



Photo by A. H. Blackiston

A FISH STAND IN A MEXICAN MARKET

few fathoms. It is not generally realized that the effective heat of the sun penetrates little beyond 17 feet in ocean water, and that at a depth of 50 fathoms there is a change of only 2 degrees during the entire year, while below 100 fathoms there are no changes whatever between summer and winter, the temperature always being lower, even in the tropics, than most of the surface temperatures in the northern winters. Ooze from the ocean floor in the tropics is so cold it cannot be comfortably handled. At great depths, there is no difference between the bottom temperature at the equator and that at the poles. Light rays are able to pierce little over 250 fathoms, where it is always an eternal twilight of mysterious blue.

Thus we find conditions suitable for infinite varieties of sea life, which abound on these and the other favored banks of Latin America. The delicious spiny lobster or sea crawfish—the famous *langouste*

of the French epicures—tasty stone crabs, large and small varieties of shrimp, and myriads of deep water and littoral fishes swarm in these tropic seas. Oysters, clams, sponges, turtles and the precious tortoise of commerce likewise exist in quantities that are encountered only in virgin areas. Corals and multi-colored shells are found in the clear depths amid the aqueous fairy land of azure tones. It can therefore be understood how this great center of marine life has earned the sobriquet of "The Treasure Chest of the Gulf."

While the banks are not much exploited, nevertheless there are visitors. The Cuban fishing fleet comes for the brilliant huachinango that is such a favorite in the markets of Habana, and so keenly relished by the northern visitor. The signal success of these fishermen has been partly due to the *viveros*, extensive live boxes built into the vessels, through which the salt water washes back and forth, keeping the catch



Photo by A. H. Blackiston

MACKEREL AT VERA CRUZ

Mexicans throw this fish on the fields for fertilizer.

alive and in the best condition until it reaches the waiting markets. The American traveler on his way from New Orleans to Central America often passes through the bobbing and curtsying vessels lying like gulls upon the water off Cape Catoche on the northeastern point of Yucatan.

Other visitors are there too, as about one hundred fishing schooners sail from American ports to return with their heaping cargoes of red snappers and groupers, which constitute about 80 percent of the catch of such fish credited to our southern ports.

The golden millions of the Cuban fish kings originated in these waters, as did many of the fortunes made in the red snapper industry of Florida, though most of the important species of sea life such as mackerel, mullet, sardines, menhaden, sea bass, etc., have never been touched and no industrial production has ever been inaugurated.

Strange as it may seem that such potential riches have been so long neglected, it is stranger still that they are so little known, lying as they do almost at our very doors.

Indeed, the fishery industry itself has never been coordinated and properly developed, and until recently but little understood. Even today methods are in vogue that were old in the days of the Conquest, and somewhat behind those of the lost civilization of the Mayas. Thus it is that the 140,000,000 square miles of the sea are at present far less exploited than the 57,000,000 square miles of the land, despite the fact that the former possesses an even greater area than that mentioned, because of the various horizontal zones of the ocean depths.

However, man is beginning to realize that the sea is a great storehouse of wealth, and that a fish is not just a fish after all. Instead, it may be anything

from highly nourishing food, vitamin-containing medicines, and stock and poultry feeds to soaps, glues, fertilizers, isinglass, rubberoid compounds, waterproofing preparations, valuable lubricants, ultra-fashionable leathers and artificial pearls—in such variety and value that even the original fish would not be able to recognize itself in its many reincarnations.

What a shock the great seines and mass production of the present would cause the fishermen of the ancient Mayas, who sought in their dugout canoes on these banks the supplies their fleet-footed *hol-popes*, or runners, carried to the inland cities, and what a surprise also such methods would be to their complacent descendants who bring in the gleaming cargoes of fish today.

However, not all inhabitants of the tropic seas by any means consent to be taken in such an ignominious and impersonal manner as by seining, but instead demand much more individual attention. The surface swimmers, such as the sardines, pilchards, herring and menhaden, can thus be rounded up, but with the bottom or deep swimmers and many of the pelagic fish it is another matter altogether. There the trawl or the old-fashioned hook and line have to be employed, yet even then modern innovations have made their appearance in the form of gang lines or mass manipulation and multiple sets, much to the detriment of such conservative members of the piscatorial aristocracy as the lordly albicore, tuna, red snapper and barracuda.

Beautiful as are the tropic seas, life beneath their glittering surface is a nightmare of destruction. The larger fish prey upon the smaller, and catch as catch can is the only rule that applies.

However, all of these trials are as nothing to that which the spawn undergoes when first appearing in the shallow breeding

grounds of the banks as young and inexperienced adventurers, for piscatorial infant mortality is appalling. Millions of eggs or young fry are gulped down to fill the rapacious maws of marauders that swarm the spawning banks for this purpose, and one adult fish can thus destroy thousands of small ones in an afternoon's outing, while larger and still more ferocious ones come until the orgy of death would make a Roman holiday look like a philanthropic assemblage, as deadly assault, mayhem, infanticide, sudden murder and cannibalism are all combined in a round of ceaseless destruction.

And yet, amid this scene of perpetual strife also exist the frailest of marine species, going their peaceful ways in utter indifference to the surrounding disturbance. There we find the beautiful Portuguese man-of-war which, however, is well able to take care of itself with its painfully effective tentacles, as unfortunately the writer can testify. Likewise, side by side with the eternal struggle, the delicate sea-gooseberry passes its existence, so frail that even the splash of a wave would destroy it, yet through some mysterious provision of nature, it possesses the ability to sink into the quiet depths before the coming of a storm and to rise when the seas above are calm again.

The supply of plankton, which we have seen is so vital to marine life, has to be plentiful enough for the young and for the old that still stick to the food of their younger days. In tropic seas, especially on the banks of Campeche and Yucatan and one or two others in Latin American waters, such unicellular plants and minute animal organisms are found in great abundance to depths of 600 feet or more. This probably accounts for the variety and richness of their marine resources, as temperature and the amount of sunlight are dominating influences in

the presence and quantity of this main spring of sea life. The interesting greenish species of plankton use the energy of the sunlight to build up carbon compounds from air, water and salts with the aid of the chlorophyll they contain. There are also sea bacteria that convert plants into nitrogen.

While plankton also exists in northern waters in large amounts, it extends to much lesser depths. Indeed, this sea dust, as it is also termed, occurs in such vast quantities in the more favorable locations that there are over 20 tons of it to the square mile of a 600-foot depth, and some great whales weighing thousands of pounds live on nothing else.

Pelagic plants are more abundant near the surface; in greater depths the life is largely animal. Some species rise by day and sink by night; others reverse the process. Thus there are runs of certain fish at given times, as well as night feeders or day feeders, depending upon the diet of the fish in question.

The temperature and salinity of the water must be just right for both plankton and the newly hatched fry in addition to the adult fish, so that the youthful progeny may flourish, although later destroyed in vast holocausts.

With that ghastly generosity that does not seem to heed such small details as the fate of the individual or its suffering, Nature creates innumerable spawn in order that its bungling may thus be offset and one survive where thousands perish. Thus a cod may be the parent of nearly 6,000,000 potential offspring at a time, and one oyster would be justified in fondly contemplating the possibilities of as many as from 10,000,000 to 60,000,000 heirs at a sitting, although it would be wise not to count in advance the cod that will actually end in codfish balls or the oysters that will eventually lie in majesty on the half shell. Some-

times the ratio is as low as 1 in 1,000,000 and sometimes lower still.

If this prodigious waste to obtain an end, for which untold thousands and millions must perish that one may survive, were in the field of human endeavor, we should probably term it fanatical, cruel beyond measure and frightfully inefficient—yet in spite of it all, we blandly smile and speak of the wise provisions of Nature! Possibly this is due to the feeling that those who live in glass houses should not throw stones, for when it comes to wanton destruction man eagerly joins hands with Nature in depleting fishery resources, and worse still in polluting the

waters with trade waste that strikes at the very root of marine life.

Naturally, this pollution does not affect so much the adult fish, which on short notice can pick up and go wherever it desires, as it wreaks havoc with the plankton and spawn that are rapidly killed off, thus rendering the waters practically unproductive. So after all, man indirectly brings the gravest danger to the finny world and is materially responsible for the alarming decrease in the fishery resources of the American and European littorals.

As the waters on the banks of the Spanish Main are pure and free from pollution, the only hazards the fish must confront are those of nature. Thus the denizens of the deep congregate in vast schools, sometimes miles in extent, in these favored areas.

Along the eastern edge of the banks of Campeche and Yucatan, where the Caribbean and the Gulf meet, schools of sardines have been reported that were over 50 miles in length; and in several portions of the banks the schools of redsnapper have been known to tinge the waters a pale red, though this fish is a deep swimmer. Oysters nearly fill some of the southern Mexican lagoons with the accumulation of their shells, materially interfering with navigation.

In some places highly prized spiny lobsters, or sea crawfish, are so plentiful that neighboring localities have been named for them, such as Tonalá de las Langostas (Tonalá of the Lobsters), and the natives are able to capture them by hundreds without the formality of using lobster pots, nets or anything else except gloved hands, with which they pick up the lobsters from the shallow portions of the reefs. Though these choice crustaceans bring exorbitant prices in many sections of Latin America, and are in great demand in the United States (the wholesale price



Photo by A. H. Blackiston

CATCHING SPINY LOBSTERS



Photo by A. H. Blackiston

WORKERS IN A CUBAN FISH CANNERY

in New Orleans, 480 miles distant, ranges from fifteen to thirty times their cost on the banks), they are as yet practically unmolested by man in their native haunts upon the barrier reefs and among the coral rocks adjoining the low-lying cays.

Within the depths of this famous Treasure Chest there are over sixty varieties of well known foodfish and crustaceans, besides several hundred other species of lesser note, though numbers of these also are of marked commercial value.

While as many as 600 trawlers sail from Grimsby, England, to supply its great wharf market, which is more than one and a half miles long and two stories high, and at which four or five trains load at a time in handling the 325,000 tons of fresh fish annually shipped from there, not a single trawler plows the blue seas of the Mexican or any of the other Latin American littorals in search of their far greater resources.

As a matter of fact, these banks contain

many more varieties of marine life than all the European waters put together, and yet their riches are not known to the world at large. To give an idea of what such resources really mean, it can be stated that if the annual catch in the North Sea, although smaller than the potential catch off Campeche and Yucatan, were placed in freight cars end to end, it would reach entirely across the continent from New York to San Francisco and a few hundred miles into the Pacific to boot. The yearly Norwegian herring output, if likewise loaded on standard flat cars, would fill a train extending from New York to Philadelphia, or in other words one that was ninety miles in length. What would the vast riches of the tropic seas of the Americas be if they were exploited along progressive commercial lines!

Oysters and shells are burned together for lime along the Mexican coasts, the beds being used as inexhaustible limestone quarries by the natives—and yet the



Photo by A. H. Blackiston

A SPONGE YARD AT BATABANÓ, CUBA

modest oyster is rich in stores of vitamins, proteins and minerals, and is caught throughout the world to the amount of 20,000,000 bushels a year, which represents the neat sum of approximately \$60,000,000, besides many additional millions for distributors by the time the ultimate consumer appears upon the scene. Four-fifths of the total catch of oysters are taken from the waters of the United States, where thousands of acres are planted and artificially raised at a substantial cost. In terms of loaded coal cars this world output would require a train 150 miles long for transportation. If they were all rolled into one huge oyster, a shell many square miles in extent would be necessary to hold it.

The Japanese employ hundreds of thousands of workers in their fisheries, forcing recalcitrant mollusks to yield pearls when they are normally unwilling to do so,

catching herring, canning the giant spider crab, manufacturing a host of products from marine vegetation and adding to their income \$175,000,000 that Neptune furnishes them in return each year.

Thus we may obtain a partial realization of what the great potentialities of the Campeche and Yucatan fishing banks really are, and of the fortunes locked within their Treasure Chests.

The multiplicity of uses to which the resources of the sea can be put is only beginning to dawn upon the business world. It has been but a few years since the value of fish meal as a stock and poultry feed was discovered, and fortunes have already been made from this industry, while its use has increased by such leaps and bounds that stringent regulations have been enforced in the United States, limiting its production in some States with the idea



Photo by A. H. Blackiston

SHRIMP ARE DRIED UNDER THE HOT SUN OF THE TROPICS

of conserving the diminishing supply of food fish. Germany produces only one-tenth of the fish meal it consumes, and has found it so effective in feeding domestic animals that in one period of four years her imports increased nearly 2,000 per cent—a truly phenomenal growth.

Coming nearer home, we find that in Monterey bay, California, approximately 7,000 tons of pilchards have been caught in two nights, which if not canned but rendered into fish meal and oils only (a thing the State of California does not permit, due to the depletion the large profits would stimulate) would have brought a *net profit*, at standard rates then in effect, of over \$30,000 for about twenty hours of actual fishing in one bay, or a gross return to the fishermen, at that time, of over \$80,000! Not bad—though naturally all fishing is not so rosy. This, how-

ever, affords an example of some of its possibilities.

Perhaps it may be still more of a surprise to learn that California, which is known as the Golden State, produces almost three times as much wealth from her fisheries as from all her gold mines put together at the old standard value of gold and the dollar, and that Los Angeles county alone is credited with an income of approximately \$20,000,000 annually from this source, though many of the fish come from the Mexican coast and some from even as far away as the waters of Ecuador and Hawaii, just as the greatest income of the French fisheries is produced by cod caught off the coasts of Iceland and Newfoundland. All the gold, silver and lead of Alaska from 1867 to date amounts to little over \$450,000,000, at the old standard value of gold—the output of the fisheries in the



Photo by A. H. Blackiston

GREEN SEA TURTLES WEIGHING AS MUCH AS FIVE HUNDRED TO SEVEN HUNDRED POUNDS ARE CAUGHT IN SOME CENTRAL AMERICAN WATERS

same time totals well over \$1,000,000,000.

Dried shrimp that at times sells in China for as high as \$500 to \$600 a ton can be produced on the Mexican east coast or that of certain other Latin American countries for as low as \$15 a ton. Sometimes also the markets in New York and Chicago go as high for fresh shrimp as the Chinese ones do for the dried product. Little wonder that when the world goes a-fishing the mines of precious metals have to take a back seat.

The fish products of the continental United States and Alaska, including both fresh fish and manufactured goods, have at times reached a value of approximately \$230,000,000 a year, while the total production of the leading countries of the world has run somewhat over \$1,000,000,000 per annum. And yet the present output of the prolific banks of Latin America is not sufficient to meet the requirements of the countries themselves, large amounts

of fishery products being imported from various portions of the world, in spite of the fact that raw material in great amounts and low-priced labor are available.

The United States is probably the most advanced country in scientific methods, but still it imports over 35 percent of the common industrial fish oils consumed, and over 90 percent of the medicinal ones, such as cod-liver oil, and likewise brings lobsters from wherever they can be obtained—sometimes as many as \$4,000,000 worth per year from Eastern Canada alone, and even canned ones from South Africa, over 6,000 miles away! Japan ships her crabs across the Pacific, while Norway, France and Spain send to the same waiting market their sardines, anchovies, herring and mackerel—all of which can be had in great abundance at far lower costs and of equal if not better quality in the unexploited waters of our nearby neighbors to the south.

We hear much of the riches of the land of

Latin America, of its mines, petroleum fields, developed and potential, as well as its forests of hardwood timber, but little is known of the equally important resources represented by its marine products. Rich as are the banks of Campeche and Yucatan, there are at least two others where fish life congregates in as great numbers and variety, besides several lesser banks. All the treasure this portion of the earth has poured into the lap of mankind amounts to little in comparison to that which waits in the blue waters by the palm-lined coasts of the Spanish Main.

The largest turtle banks in the world lie off the coasts of Central America, while few, if any, sponge beds surpass those of Cuba, Mexico and other portions of the Latin American waters. The noted ones of Batabanó on the south coast of Cuba furnish a substantial amount of the world's supply of wool, velvet and grass sponges; and such is the abundance and texture of those from the Mexican Chinchorro Banks that the native sponge fleet goes there only once every two or three years for a short period, obtaining in that time a sufficient supply for several years, hardly even disturbing the great reserves of commercial sponges under those clear waters.

Pearls were shipped in such great amounts to Spain in the early days from the Gulf of Lower California and the seas in the vicinity of the island of Margarita and the Gulf of Darien that they were sold in the streets of Seville from piles like beans or other low-priced commodities. The largest pearl in the world came from La

Paz in Lower California, and at one period about half a ton of these gems was shipped within a year from there to Spain. As fine pearls as were ever taken out probably still remain off the shores of Latin America.

There also exists a far greater variety of sea life in the southern waters than in the northern ones, and some of the most delicately flavored of all fish are found there, but due to the fortuitous prior development of fisheries in the northern areas, the tropical seas are just beginning to be recognized at their true worth in terms of vast supplies of long neglected natural resources.

As man is a land animal, it is also but natural that he should have first explored and developed his terrestrial surroundings before looking elsewhere. However, he has already spread across the continents and around the world, conquering new fields and developing old ones, gaily depleting natural resources as he went, until at last he is face to face with the richest area of all—the sea—which will furnish the next great sources of his commercial development.

Through it all, beneath the brilliant suns of the tropics, and the long starlit nights, the Treasure Chests of the Spanish Main have remained unmolested, while fast in their depths untold wealth has been locked throughout the ages, riches slowly accumulating from the beginning of Time to await the appointed day when the energy and intelligence of man shall unlock its secrets and pour forth into the arms of needy humanity those blessings that have so long been held in store for it.

The Centenary of Eugenio María de Hostos

THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS are uniting this month to pay tribute to Eugenio María de Hostos, a great man who in his constant travels up and down the continent left everywhere he paused traces of his genius; of his educational activities; of his unselfish devotion to the ideals of freedom; of his work as a gifted writer and profound thinker. January 11, 1939, is the hundredth anniversary of his birth, and in many countries public tribute will be paid to the labors of that "illustrious unknown" who, "venerated piecemeal throughout the American Continent," to use the phrase of one of his biographers, "has not yet received the just reward that posterity confers on the great leaders of culture."

De Hostos was born in Río Cañas, near the present city of Mayagüez, Puerto Rico, on January 11, 1839, and went to school in San Juan, the capital of the island. Later he journeyed to Spain, where he attended first the University in Bilbao and later that in Madrid. He plunged with all his energy and enthusiasm into the cause of republican Spain, associating himself with the most prominent liberals of the time. In America he championed especially the freedom of the Spanish West Indies. In an indefatigable and completely altruistic campaign for the liberty of Cuba, he visited Santo Domingo, Caracas, Santiago, Lima, Bogotá, Buenos Aires, Rio de Janeiro, New York, Paris and Madrid, editing newspapers and writing prolifically. For this work he received no funds whatever except those that he earned. Everywhere he left behind him

an enviable reputation as a journalist, author and educator. To the Dominican Republic, where he founded the first normal school in the nation, he gave the most fruitful years of his teaching, and it was in this adopted country that his life came to an end in August 1903.

Among the most important works of de Hostos are: *La Peregrinación de Bayoán*, a politico-social novel in verse; *La Moral Social*; *La Sociología*; *Estudios de Sociología Americana*; *Tratado de Lógica*; *El Derecho Constitucional*; *Historia de la Pedagogía*; and numerous other works on law, politics, science, education, history and literary criticism. His essay on Hamlet is considered one of the most masterly commentaries on Shakespeare.

The Legislative Assembly of Puerto Rico gave official approval to the activities of the commission organized under the honorary chairmanship of Governor Blanton Winship and the chairmanship of Dr. Emilio del Toro Cuebas, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Puerto Rico, to commemorate with due ceremony the anniversary of the island's distinguished son. This Commission was authorized to publish the works of de Hostos as the most lasting monument to the memory of this distinguished author.

The Pan American Union will join in the continental celebration of the centenary of de Hostos' birth. Dr. Pedro de Alba, the Assistant Director of the Pan American Union, will deliver an address entitled *La Moral Social of de Hostos*, which will be published in an early issue of the BULLETIN.

A Center of Argentine-American Friendship

ELSIE BROWN

Managing Editor, BULLETIN of the Pan American Union

A TALL, NARROW HOUSE stands at Calle Maipú 686 in the central part of Buenos Aires. On three days a week at ten in the morning, and on five days at every hour from three in the afternoon to seven in the evening, you will see lively crowds flocking through its door—little boys and girls of six, older children, young men and women, fine-looking people of middle age. Over three thousand different persons enter from Monday to Friday. If you follow some of them inside you will see them going up the stairs to the floors above. It looks like a school, and in fact it is a specialized one—the classes of the Argentine-American Cultural Institute, which for ten years have been offered to Argentines desiring to learn English, with the special purpose in view of enabling them to understand more accurately the United States and its people, their life and their habits of thought. Dr. Cupertino del Campo, President of the Institute, believes that the best cultural bond between two nations is the knowledge of each other's language. Of course there are very practical aspects too: Several Buenos Aires branches of American firms send their Argentine employees so that they may be better qualified for their work, or by a convenient arrangement have classes for them in their own offices; some persons are interested in acquiring or perfecting a knowledge of English because they are planning to study in the United States; others wish to understand the American talkies!

If you enter a classroom, you will be

delighted with the enthusiasm of the students. There is no shrinking out of sight for fear of being called on; everyone *wants* to learn English, and is passionately eager to have a chance to recite and obtain all the practice possible. Conversation is the order of the day, and the results are admirable, whether the subject is shopping for a hat or telling the story of *Daddy Longlegs*. Did it ever occur to you that if you are not to the manner born it is hard to learn to say *Did you see him?* and *I did not see him*, although the affirmative statement is *I saw him?* And while you may be aware of pitfalls in spelling English, a foreigner must also struggle with its appalling inconsistencies in pronunciation.

In addition to the basic courses in English, an elementary and an advanced course in American literature, one in American drama, and a special class for lawyers are given. As the Institute grows, it expands its services to meet the desires and needs of those within its sphere of influence. There is one branch in the suburbs, and another for small children has been started in the city of La Plata, about thirty-five miles from Buenos Aires. Córdoba, a city of 300,000 in central Argentina, also has a branch.

The Argentine-American Cultural Institute, generally known in Buenos Aires as the Icana from the initials of its Spanish name, Instituto Cultural Argentino-Norteamericano, was founded in December 1927 as the result of a suggestion made to the Buenos Aires Rotary Club by its

President, Dr. Cupertino del Campo. The purposes of the new organization were defined as the promotion of better mutual cultural acquaintance between Argentina and the United States; increased intellectual interchange between the two countries; and the improvement of their knowledge of each other in general, thus advancing closer relations and contributing to international harmony and cooperation.

Early in the following March the first officers were elected, headed by Dr. Alfredo Colmo, who died a few years ago. The president of the Institute is now its original sponsor, Dr. Cupertino del Campo, of whom the Hon. Alexander W. Weddell, American Ambassador to Argentina, said:

Among those whose generous labors have made the Icana the useful institution that it is I may name without fear of arousing jealousy our President, Dr. Cupertino del Campo, a gifted poet, a distinguished writer of prose, and a painter equipped with a fine technique. To all these talents should be added his profound humanity, that feeling revealed in his enthusiasm for everything good. These are the virtues that impel him to give so unselfishly of his spiritual and intellectual energy as well as of his time, even under difficulties. For all this it is only just to express my gratitude and my thanks.

Dr. del Campo is ably assisted by officers elected from the Institute's most prominent members, and by an efficient executive secretary, Señor Francisco Maté.

As you step inside the door of the Institute you find on your left a most attractive bookstore. On entering, you discover that it is entirely devoted to American books; all those that you have read about in the newest reviews and advertisements are there. This is a valuable center of American culture in Buenos Aires, where books from the United States, because of their high cost, are not found in profusion, although bookstores abound and many fine editions come from Argentine presses.

The annual sales have been growing steadily, reaching nearly 6,000 volumes. A number of associations, university schools and technical institutes make their purchases of American books through this store. The Institute had the happy idea of circularizing members and friends in order to learn in what type of books each person was especially interested; the preferences expressed in reply are taken into account in ordering. A very valuable publication of the Institute was a general bibliography of books referring to the United States; it contained five thousand titles on a wide variety of subjects. The bookshop keeps on hand for reference copies of the United States Catalog and the Cumulative Book Index and is now supplementing these by a card catalog of the newest books published in the United States which are of interest to its public. The titles will be published periodically in a special bulletin.

On the top floor of the building is a club room for students who wish to enjoy a social hour, or to read American magazines or books. The members enjoy receiving pictures and postcards of the United States that they can use to decorate the walls, and will appreciate any that are sent them.

The preparation of reports in answer to inquiries in the United States and from Argentina; supervised correspondence; the publication of a BULLETIN and monographs in English and Spanish containing lectures delivered before the Institute; the sending of a collection of Argentine etchings on a tour of the United States; receptions to distinguished guests; benefits; an annual tea dance on board a ship of the Munson Line; the award of the Colmo prize for the best essay on *The advantages of cultural interchange between Argentina and the United States* written by a student in the Institute's English classes, are some of the activities of the Institute. Many of them it would be delighted to expand when funds

permit; there is special interest in bringing to Argentina an exhibit of American art and sending Argentine pictures to the United States.

At the Pan American Day exercises for which students from the Washington schools assembled in the Hall of the Americas in the Pan American Union last April, they had the thrill of receiving by radio from Buenos Aires a greeting in English to American students from Señor Pedro Parapugna, a student in the Institute, and of hearing several Argentine songs. The Washington students reciprocated with a greeting in Spanish and some musical selections.

On this occasion Dr. del Campo sent an eloquent message to the nations of America in his dual character as president of the Institute and chairman of the International Relations Committee of the Buenos Aires Rotary Club. This message was printed in Spanish and English and distributed widely in the United States and Latin America. It read in part as follows:

If in our private lives, we find day in and day out that when we offer our hands with spontaneous loyalty and warm sympathy, other hands, actuated by the same motives, will hasten to grasp ours, why should we not apply in international affairs the results of our individual experience? If every good citizen aspires to have his country respected and loved abroad, may not love and respect to other peoples prove to be the shortest road towards the goal so ardently desired, since affection is always repaid in the same coin?

Thus, as I have maintained for many years, the secret of universal concord or, at least, the most effective means for achieving it, is to be sought in practising in the sphere of relationships between the peoples of the earth the virtues of private life, and—in spite of those who aim at subjugating the world by force—the principal founts of a good international policy are to be encountered in goodness and nobility.

The Institute is supported entirely by membership dues, tuition fees, and gifts; its annual budget is now about 100,000 pesos a year. Although chiefly Argentine

in membership, it has the cooperation of local American organizations and residents, and the ambassadors of the United States have always taken a special and often a practical interest. The Institute is active in obtaining fellowships for Argentines to study in the United States, and at one time had as many as four of its own teachers holding fellowships in various institutions. Several parties of Argentines interested in observing special phases of American life, such as child welfare work or education, have been sent to the United States through the Institute and the cooperation of various organizations in this country, and the Munson Steamship line for several years offered a trip to the United States to three persons chosen by the Institute. In this connection Dr. del Campo said:

There is no doubt that in recent years the idea that Argentines have of the United States has become much more favorable. This is due to a better knowledge of its culture and of the character of its inhabitants.

There is one thing, especially, that gives a measure of this culture. This is the admiration of all Argentine specialists for the United States when they return from study there, even though they have visited the most advanced European nations and are well qualified to make comparisons. I frequently hear physicians, engineers, philosophers, educators, praise in glowing terms the cultural advancement of the United States. As for art, I have had the opportunity of expressing my admiration in many lectures and articles . . . Furthermore, the Argentine traveler returns to his country, cherishing not only admiration but also a warm friendship for the country that has welcomed him so graciously and with so much kindness, as well as for its people, who are always ready to extend a cordial hand to visitors.

All this explains why a group of Argentines works with unfailing interest for closer relations between our country and the United States. We consider that it is patriotic to introduce into our country new and valuable elements of culture, and at the same time we have a very real pleasure in helping to strengthen the bonds of friendship between two nations that have the same ideals of democracy, peace and good neighborliness.

Whenever a distinguished American is in Buenos Aires he is invited to lecture at the Institute or arrangements are made for him to speak elsewhere in the city. The Argentines, like Americans, enjoy lectures, and those at the Institute lecture hall are well attended by a distinguished audience. Among recent American and Argentine lecturers may be mentioned: Dr. Samuel Flagg Bemis, of Yale University, who spoke on *The present foreign policy of the United States*; Dr. Ignacio Winizky, on *Civil and political rights of women in the United States*; Dr. Enrique Loudet, on *The first American diplomat in Argentina*; Dr. Carl W. Ackerman, on *Relations of the newspaper to public opinion*; Dr. Henry A. Holmes, on *Some tendencies in contemporary literature in the United States*; Dr. Bernardo A. Houssay, on *The significance of the Harvard tercentenary*,¹ and Dr. Enrique Gil, whose subject was *Why I sent my son to an American school*. Dr. Gil, one of the founders of the Institute, a former president, and a member of the executive committee, said in the course of his address:

You may ask why I chose as the environment for the training of my son's character the United States and not one of the European countries. It was not because of lack of appreciation or knowledge of the cultural treasures of Europe nor because I was unaware of the benefits that an Argentine boy might in particular cases derive from a fairly long stay in one of the countries of the old world.

My decision was based on the fact that there is a greater similarity, taking into consideration difference in size, between the United States and its people and our country; that American social and cultural progress is a stimulating tonic for a nation as well endowed by nature as ours; that in the United States there is less difference between the ethical standards of the government and those that the government prescribes for the conduct of its citizens; that European social life is cast in a mould, as its literature (especially the

novel) shows, while here and in the United States class feeling is almost imperceptible; that every excess of refinement breeds hybrids, which is the danger threatening Europe; and that the United States offers us lessons in sociology and politics not only by its virtues but also by its faults.

Spencer once said to his compatriots: "Educate your children to be not merely gentlemen or ladies but also men or women." . . .

There are no easy roads in life either for the individual or for the nation; those that appear to be so lead in the final analysis to undesirable ends. Regarded from the perspective of history, America is still in a period of its evolution that has been distinguished and will be distinguished for many years to come as a time of trial and of transition, at times somewhat amorphous. Any servile imitation of Europe will, by producing inhibitions, retard the development of our own aptitudes, which alone can produce lasting and fruitful results. Traditions should be respected and considered, but we must not live by borrowed traditions, nor should we glorify our own to such a point that they check the desire for progress innate in young nations. When countries have evolved to a certain point their customs and social habits are characterized by a kind of standardization of ideas, conventions and prejudices that insensibly becomes a powerful motivation. This change also produces a mirage of social advancement conducive to a mistaken course of conduct, since the moral and cultural needs of young countries are far different.

Finally I will tell you what was perhaps the chief factor in my choice of the educational environment offered in the United States when I was faced with the problem of the best and most efficient training of a boy's character.

Years ago, a few months after my arrival in the United States, I was studying in the library of the University of Pennsylvania when suddenly a ray of light fell on the book that I was reading. I raised my head and noticed that as the sun shone through a magnificent Gothic window it brought out the beautiful colors of the glass and cast an aureole around this sentence: "The great man is he who does not lose his child's heart." I began to ponder the significance of those words; their profound meaning remained with me through later life and eventually influenced me to think that the atmosphere of the United States is the most suitable, under the conditions that I have described, for the education of our young people. We must be a great nation with the soul of a child, not a child-nation with the soul of an old man.

¹ Dr. Houssay, a research endocrinologist, was the only Latin American who received an honorary degree on this occasion.

The Carnauba Palm and its Wax

W. N. WALMSLEY, JR.

American Consul, Recife, Brazil

TO THE AVERAGE person carnauba connotes merely an exotic wax, but to the *sertanejo*¹ of the Brazilian Northeast the carnauba palm is perhaps even more valuable than the camel to the Bedouin. This rough-barked, fan-topped palm supplies the *sertanejo*¹ not only food, drink, and a cash crop, but also fibers for clothing, timber of innumerable uses, such as house-building, and light. In the interior of the Northeast, the carnauba is indeed man's loyal ally in the recurring droughts which scourge the region. Because of the important part this tree has played in the development of the Brazilian *sertão*, and in the historical evolution of its people, it merits the principal role in any ecological study of the northeastern country. . .

According to Sampaio², carnauba is a corruption of the Tupi *carnahyba*. The latter is compounded from *caraná* or *carandá*, meaning scaly, thick-skinned or -barked, asperous, and *yba*, meaning tree or palm. Today *carandá* or *curandú* is the name applied to the species producing no wax found in Matto Grosso, Paraguay, and Argentina.³

Classification

Baron von Humboldt's "tree of life"⁴ was probably first classified about 1796 by Arruda da Camara, who in an official

Consular report of Sept. 29, 1938.

¹ Inhabitant of the flat semi-arid inland, or *sertão*, of Northeastern Brazil.

² Theodoro Sampaio, "O Tupi na Geographia Nacional," Bahia, 1928.

³ Agronomist Humberto de Andrade in "A União," Parahyba, July 17, 1938.

⁴ A. de Humboldt et A. Bonpland, "Voyages aux Régions Équinoxiales du Nouveau Continent en 1799-1804," Paris, 1816.

report dated November 28, 1809, stated: "This plant is of the palm family, genus *corypha*, whose species, being new, I have denominated in my centuaria (sic) of new plants in Pernambuco, *cerifera*."⁵

There are earlier records (eighteenth century) of studies made of the palm, but evidently none showing its classification.⁶ In honor of Arruda, the carnauba in Brazil is frequently denoted *Arrudaria cerifera*, and Almeida Pinto strongly favors this name. It was only about 1805, the latter writes, that the next classification was made, and then the designation *copernica cerifera* was given it.⁷

Be that as it may, the carnauba now is generally treated as a species of an American genus of palm, and is designated *copernicia* (or *copernica*) *cerifera*.⁸

Description

The carnauba is a straight-trunked palm of slow growth.⁹ Even after fifty years it seldom attains a height of more than 40 or 50 feet. Its average height is 25 to 33 feet. The bark, of the lower part especially, is scaly, rough and thick, and the leaves grow out from yard-long petioles in wide serried fan shapes. The tree reproduces prolifically. The ovaloid fruit, less

⁵ Translated from quotation in Thomaz Pompeu's "O Ceará no Centenario da Independência," Fortaleza, 1922, vol. II, from report of Dr. Manuel Arruda da Camara, Brazilian naturalist.

⁶ "Jornal da Lavoura," Nov. 20, 1925.

⁷ Joaquim de Almeida Pinto, "Diccionario de Botanica Brasileira," Rio de Janeiro, 1873.

⁸ Cf. Webster's "New International Dictionary," 2d ed., Springfield, 1938; Funk & Wagnall's "New Standard Dictionary," New York, 1923; Brazil 1937, Brazilian Foreign Office, Rio; Clarence F. Jones' "South America," New York, 1930, etc.

⁹ See photograph.

than an inch long, resembles a hazel nut, and when ripened falls to the ground, where dense clumps of shoots spring up in a struggle for existence. The phalangeal groups are evidently designed by nature to protect the tender palmito against voracious cattle, but even so, but a small percentage has survived by the time the shoots become saplings.¹⁰ There is no master root. The roots stretch to a considerable radius in search of humidity, but remain near the surface. The method of reproduction makes the species very gregarious.

The flowers of the carnauba are monoecious, very small and numerous, and grow from an appendix in the axils of the leaves.

During the dry months the leaves and petioles exude a wax through the pores. The physiological function of the wax, it is commonly said, is to prevent excessive evaporation of water in the process of photosynthesis. The summer sun which, with inexorable fury, lays waste the wide plains of the *sertão* from July to December, stimulates, it seems, the production of this wax. Although when the rains occasionally fail in the "winter"¹¹ many carnauba palms eventually succumb, the available wax for a time actually increases.¹² Thus by increasing the cash crop of wax nature compensates in part the suffering caused by the drought.

That the exudation of wax by the carnauba palm is a purely physiological function of self-defense is doubted by at least two Brazilian agronomists. The wax, according to Joaquim Bertino de Moraes Carvalho, is a product resulting from the

¹⁰ "Dicionário das Plantas Úteis do Brasil e das Exóticas Cultivadas," by M. Pio Correa, published by the Federal Ministry of Agriculture, Rio, in 17 volumes, 1926.

¹¹ In the Northeast, the rainy season is the "winter," and the dry the "summer."

¹² "Dicionário Histórico Geográfico e Etnográfico do Brasil" of the Instituto Histórico, Rio, 1922; and "O Ceará no Centenário" and "Brasil 1937," cited above.

abundance of certain salts in the soil. Humberto de Andrade, referring to the fact, cited frequently in support of the self-defense theory, that Matto Grosso and other southern South American palms yield no wax owing to the humidity of the zones where they are found, avers that these non-producing palms are of the species *carandá*, and not of the wax-yielding species *copernica cerifera*. The wax, Andrade believes, may be considered an innate product of the latter species, just as sugar is the innate product of cane, cotton of the cotton plant, and so on.¹³

Distribution

The natural habitat of the carnauba palm extends from Bahia, near the banks of the São Francisco River, to the murky Amazon. Owing to its method of reproduction, it is generally found in fairly homogeneous stands. But its influence has been greatest along the river beds lying between the State of Parahyba on the south and the Parnahyba River on the north. Here, by rivers whose names we never learned in our geographies, but which to the regions they traverse are veritable life streams, the carnauba palm perennially surveys the valleys of the Assú, the Piranhas, the Peixe, the Jaguaribe, the Ipanema, the Mossoró, the Acarahú, the Curú, the Coreaoú. Although it has flourished elsewhere when transplanted, it yields its wax in appreciable quantities only in the semi-arid Brazilian Northeast. The states in which it is autochthonous are, from south to north, Bahia, Sergipe, Alagoas, Pernambuco, Parahyba, Rio Grande do Norte, Ceará, Piauí, and Maranhão. Climatic conditions favorable for the production of the wax, on the one hand, and accessibility of the larger stands on the other, have made of the States of

¹³ "Una Observação sobre a Carnaubeira" in "A União," Parahyba, July 17, 1938.



Photo by W. N. Walmsley, Jr.

CARNAUBA PINES GROWING ON THE BANKS OF COCÓ RIVER, CEARÁ

Note the roughness of the lower part of the trunk.

Ceará, Piahy, Rio Grande do Norte and Maranhão the principal sources of the commodity.¹⁴

The natives of the Northeast make a practical distinction between the white and the red carnauba. In the white, the spiral volutes of the extended petiole turn right, while in the red, they turn left. There is also a black variety.¹⁵

Manifold uses

Jean Ferdinand Denis,¹⁶ in agreement with Humboldt's observation concerning the "tree of life," suggests that the carnauba palm could well supply the needs of a nation. If he considered the *sertanejos* as a nation, his enthusiasm would not outstrip the facts.

From the hard timber of the palm are built the walls and floors (if there are floors) of the countryman's house. This wood likewise serves to make laths to take plaster, and owing to its peculiar properties, pilings from it are in general

use in the salt or brackish waters of the northeastern coast. As it is almost impervious to the attacks of insects, it enters the construction of permanent outdoor works, such as bridges and fences, and it is also popular for furniture making. Although the timber from the lower portion of the trunk is too hard for common use as firewood (for which purpose, however, the bark serves well), the intense concentrated heat with which it burns in a hearth makes it a valuable industrial fuel. The trunk, hollowed out, is frequently employed as a water lift. The core of the upper portion of the trunk, the *cabuco*, is used for making stoppers¹⁷. The leaves are often utilized for window and door shades.

The food value of the palm lies in the end shoots and in the fruit. The young shoots furnish an edible palmito [heart of palm]. From them can also be made wine, vinegar, and a saccharine substance. The fruit, small and oblong shaped and hanging in bunches, is greenish when young, and of a rust color when ripe. When dried, it may be crushed for the

¹⁴ "Diccionario Historico"; "Brazil 1937."

¹⁵ "Brazil 1937" and "Journal da Lavoura," Nov. 20, 1925.

¹⁶ "Brésil", Paris, 1937.

¹⁷ "Journal da Lavoura", November 20, 1925.

cooking oil it produces. A brew resembling coffee may be made with the roasted and pulverized fruit. From the medullary pith, when subjected to numerous washings, a starchy flour may be made similar to the manioc flour extensively used in Brazil. And to solace the *sertanejo*, the fermented starchy pith yields an alcoholic drink¹⁸.

From the roots is extracted a preparation said to be similar to sarsaparilla. It is popularly used in the treatment of syphilis and certain other ailments.¹⁹

And when other plants die, the very young saplings, and the tender shoots on the grown palm, are fed to the starving cattle, which have been driven to the banks of the drying river beds. Thus in periods of prolonged drought, the carnauba palm saves the principal wealth of the *sertão* from annihilation.

Above we have examined the more important uses of the palm in the home and in buildings. The leaves and stems have, furthermore, numerous uses of a more industrial nature.

The important hat industry of Ceará, for example, uses the fibers of the carnauba's leaves. These hats, similar to Panamas, are shipped to all parts of Brazil. Nine-tenths of the population in the Northeast sleeps in hammocks made from the same fibers. The fisherman casts a net, the cowboy throws a blanket over his horse, and fits a halter, and the boatman uses a rope, made from these fibers. These also enter the manufacture of baskets, mats and curtains, and if carded, may be used for stuffing mattresses. The fiber from the petiole is made into brooms and brushes, and finally the stalks, reduced to charcoal and pulverized, contain an alkali used in soap-making.

If the wax were useless, therefore, the carnauba palm would still be the most useful single plant in the Northeast. Yet it is only the wax that has given the palm universal renown.

The earliest use found for the wax was for making candles. For this purpose it is mixed with a small portion of animal tallow and solidified around a cotton wick.²⁰ The noted traveler, Pierre Denis, writing in the first years of this century, pays the following tribute in his *Brazil*,²¹ to the carnauba candle: "Local industry employs this product in making candles with cotton wicks. Unhappy is the traveler who waits for the evening in order to arrange his notes of the day, and who can procure no other source of light!"

Although the candle today is being rapidly replaced in the remainder of Brazil by oil lamps and electricity, three quarters of a century ago Pompeu, the leading Cearense statesman of the Empire, wrote: ". . . it is known that the use of carnauba wax for illumination is general and has been introduced in nearly all the provinces."²²

Industrialization

In the light of the general use of carnauba wax today in the manufacture of polishes, da Camara's words in his 1809 report²³ make interesting reading: ". . . I am unable as yet to advise as to the quantity of wax that may be extracted from each leaf, or how much each plant can produce; for on this point, and the question as to whether it may be used for some kinds of polish, in a solution of alcohol, I have not yet made, but will soon make, experiments."

It would perhaps not be amiss at this point to recall the principal uses of the wax itself. Every school boy is familiar with

¹⁸ "Diccionario Historico," vol. I; "O Ceará no Centenario," vol. II; "A Republica," Natal, Oct. 30, 1937.

¹⁹ "O Ceará," *op. cit.*

²⁰ "O Ceará."

²¹ Bernard Miall's English translation, Charles Scribners, 1926.

²² "Ensaio Estatístico," 1861.

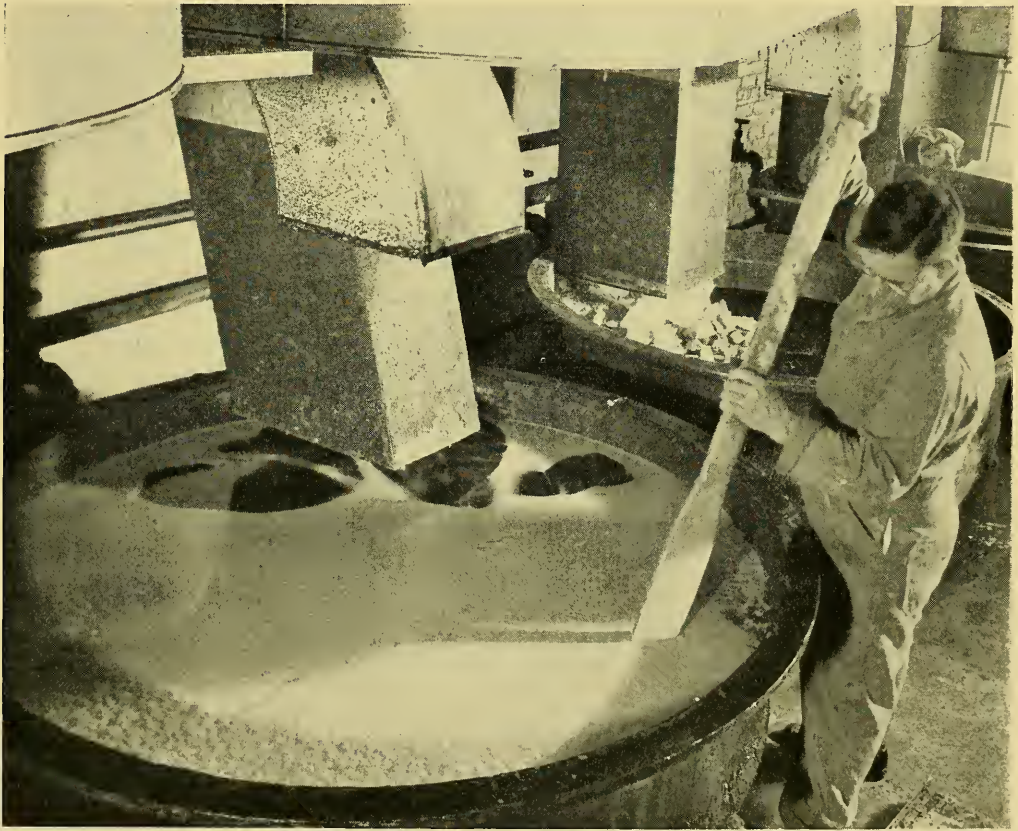
²³ Quoted in "O Ceará," *op. cit.*

its use as a base for shoe, floor, and furniture polishes and waxes. He also knows that the typically American product, the phonograph record, is made of a composition containing carnauba wax. But its less familiar uses are no less important. It makes good electric insulators. In a resin and paraffin preparation it can be used to waterproof wrapping paper and pasteboard, as well as cotton and other cloths. It enters the manufacture of photographic films and soap, and is used in manufacturing lubricating oils. Employed in coating carbon paper, it assures

readable and clean copies. Artificial fruits and foods which are used for window-dressing contain five to ten percent carnauba wax. As an ingredient in ointments, salves and unguents, it is a familiar product to pharmacists and manufacturing druggists. The sealing material on dry batteries is composed largely of carnauba wax.

And finally, carnauba's role in the manufacture of picric acid during the World War is readily recalled today.²⁴

²⁴ "Dictionary of Tariff Information," U. S. Tariff Commission, Washington, 1924; "O Ceará," "Diccionario Historico"; "Brazil 1937."



Courtesy of S. C. Johnson and Son, Inc.

MAKING A WELL-KNOWN AMERICAN FLOOR WAX

Pouring down chutes come chunks of carnauba wax and other waxes to be refined in huge kettles each holding a ton. Slow, careful heating melts the various ingredients into a thin mixture and permits impurities to be removed.

Properties

The properties of the prepared wax are suggestive of its manifold applications. All grades are hard and brittle. Their melting point is 78° to 85° C., their saponification value 80 to 90 milligrams, and their iodine value, 7 to 14 centigrams. Unsaponifiable matter is about 50 percent. Its specific gravity at 15° C. is 0.990.²⁵ The degree of viscosity is 42.03 to 43.03. The chalky grade contains about 92 percent wax, 1.9 percent humidity, and 5.7 percent mineral residue, while the standard prime (*mediana*) is over 97 percent wax, 1.4 percent water, and about 1.2 percent mineral residue.²⁶ The color ranges from a deep brownish slate to a very light yellow, depending upon the grade, as will be seen farther on.

Grades

There are two primary classes of carnauba wax. They are determined by the type of leaf from which the powder is extracted. From the large, mature leaves, the outside fan edge of which measures one foot and a half to two feet and a half, is obtained the *cera de palha* or "straw" wax, while from the smaller yellow leaf, measuring about one foot, is extracted the *cera de olho*, or "eye" wax. Thus the class of wax to be obtained is known before the leaf is cut. The names *palha* and *olho* refer respectively to the large broomy pendant leaf, and to the smaller upright leaf on a stalk growing from one of the "eyes" common on palms.

The *palha* produces the *arenosa* or chalky, and the *gorda* or waxy, at the will of the worker. The waxy, ranging from dark yellow to almost black, and fetching the better price of the two, is melted dry, making a toasted wax (*cera torrada*). The chalky, melted with water, contains five to

seven percent moisture, of which it loses perhaps one percent after sacking. This is the cooked wax (*cera cozida*). It varies from a dull gray to a dark green color. It is a little rough to the touch, but should contain no sand if good.

From the dust obtained from the *olho* are made the prime grades, to wit, *flor fina*; *amarella primeira*, or yellow number one; and *mediana clara*, or yellow number two. The *flor fina*, the purest of all the grades, having a pale yellow to egg yolk color, is commercially not important as it represents hardly one percent of the total production. The yellow number one, of slightly deeper hue than the *flor fina*, is the most desirable of the fine quality waxes. The *mediana* already has a slight slate tinge, but its usefulness is almost equal to that of the number one.²⁷ There are also the inferior *mediana roxa* and *cauhyte* in the *olho* group, but they hardly figure in foreign trade. They are made from the residue left from the primes.

The state of Ceará produces all the above waxes. Approximately 70 percent of the output is of *palha* grades, while the remainder (including the small percentage of *flor fina*) is made up of the yellow primes. Of the *palha* grades, Piauhys furnishes mostly the waxy, and Rio Grande do Norte, mostly the chalky. Both produce the usual 30 percent of yellows.²⁸

Planting and growing

The efforts that have been made to raise a wax-yielding carnauba palm in other countries have all been fruitless. In Ceylon it is known that some carnaubas were planted thirty or more years ago, but while the palms are useful in many ways, the leaves have not to this day exuded recoverable wax.²⁹ The carnauba

²⁷ The classification is that known as Raul Senra's.

²⁸ Confidential sources.

²⁹ Jonas Gurgel in "A Republica", Natal, November 30, 1932; Humberto de Andrade, Ceará agronomist, and others.

²⁵ "Brazil 1937."

²⁶ M. Pio Correa, op. cit., vol. II.

palms cultivated in French Equatorial Africa for many years have likewise failed to produce extractable wax.³⁰ Fear is nevertheless occasionally expressed that the carnauba palm may go the way of Amazonas rubber, and in 1935 the Ceará state government prohibited the export of seeds.³¹ At the same time certain of the north-eastern state governments, particularly the government of Rio Grande do Norte, have actively encouraged the rational cultivation of the carnauba palm. It was even suggested at one time that the state governments might offer a premium to farmers planting the palm. It was believed that the governments would be amply repaid, after eight or ten years, by the increased collection of export taxes on the wax. The planting of the carnauba palm, of which the wax-yielding varieties are found in marshes and along river banks, does not in any way prejudice the growth of other crops.

In order to expedite the growth of the carnauba, the seeds, when planted, should be abundantly watered. With generous watering they sprout in thirty or forty days and yield wax as a rule in about seven years. If the seeds lack water, sprouting is greatly retarded. Full yield, under normal conditions, is reached in ten years. To date, however, most carnauba palms are still in the wild state. No census has ever been taken of the carnauba stands, but an estimate can be made of palms producing commercially on the basis of an average yield of about 150 grams of wax per tree per season. On such a basis, one must calculate over 50,000,000 trees in production, and of these, 20,000,000 are in Ceará and Piauí and 5,000,000 or 6,000,000 in Rio Grande do Norte.³² The

cultivated palm, after it has attained the age of about one year, requires little or no attention.³³

Time of Harvest

The harvest of the carnauba wax takes place, as stated, during the dry season, which normally occurs between August or September and December or January. If winter rains are late, the wax may be gathered in February or later.³⁴ The sharp differentiation between wet and dry seasons is shown by the rainfall statistics collected over a period of thirty or more years and published in *O Ceará no Centenário da Independência*.³⁵ Along the coast near Fortaleza and the lower valley of the Jaguaribe the mean rainfall is 43 to 51 inches between February and June, and only 8 to 12 inches between July and December.

Harvesting procedure

The harvesting of the wax is undertaken by one of three common systems. The first and most generally practised one is that whereby the proprietor of the land on which the stands are found rents the stands to *moradores*. The *moradores* are a class of semi-nomadic cattle-raisers who accompany their herds from pasture to pasture and from water-hole to water-hole and who squat on the property of settled farmers during harvest periods for cotton, carnauba and other crops. The prospective lessee gauges the stands and offers a rental based on the number of trees and the prospects of the yield. The *morador*, as a rule, contracts with the proprietor himself for the sale of the wax, the proprietor often being a small trader. Naturally, the lessee, to obtain maximum returns from his contract, attempts to obtain a maximum

³⁰ "A República" Natal, June 13, 1937.

³¹ "Diário Oficial" of August 5, 1935.

³² "Carnauba," bulletin No. 1 of 1937 of the Rio Grande do Norte Secretaria Geral, and official production and export statistics.

³³ Jonas Gurgel.

³⁴ Confidential sources.

³⁵ Thomaz Pompeo, *op. cit.*

amount of wax and weight without regard to purity of the product or the future yield of the trees. Thus the quality of the wax and the future yield of the trees are both prejudiced.

The second method of harvesting consists simply of the proprietor's hiring labor or contracting *moradores* to remove the wax and to melt it for shipment.

The third system is a kind of share-cropping procedure known in the carnauba zones as *colheita por parceria* (partnership harvest). The proprietor of the land in this case permits the *moradores* to squat temporarily on his lands on the condition that they assist in the carnauba harvest, and he agrees to share the profits with the *moradores*.³⁶

As has been seen above, the leaves of the carnauba palm normally begin to exude wax about August or September. Workers remove the leaves by chopping through the stems with a kind of curved hatchet-like knife (*foice*) attached to a long stick. As the leaves fall to the ground they are carefully conveyed to a central terrace for drying. In a normal year there are two or three cuttings per tree and each tree yields from eight to twelve leaves per cutting. When the dry season is prolonged, as many as five cuttings per tree may be made, and while production during such an extended harvest may increase by twenty-five or thirty percent, the trees are apt to tire and, if a long drought sets in, the depleted tree, after two or three years, may die. Thus the benefit which may be obtained from one dry season is counteracted by a diminution or cessation of yield after two or three successive dry winters. For efficient year-in, year-out yield not more than three cuttings of leaves per tree should be made, and a period of eleven to

thirteen weeks should elapse between cuttings.

In cutting the leaves the worker must be careful not to remove those that are too young—for this would slowly kill the tree—and at the same time he must not wait for the leaves to attain full maturity, for they then bear a relatively small amount of wax. The young leaves sprout upright from the tree and, as they mature, their own weight bends the stems outward and downward. Thus, when the leaf reaches the position described by the *sertanejo* as "six o'clock", which corresponds to the setting of the sun, no more wax may be expected (see illustration).

Preparation of wax

The leaves, as has been seen, are carried to a terrace for drying in the sun. Drying takes from three to five days. Special care must be taken to see that none of the wax as it dries is carried off by the wind. The most suitable form of drying terrace consists of a tiled or cement floor about 10 or 13 feet square surrounded by an unroofed wall perhaps two and a half feet high. Thus the leaves are exposed to the vertical sun rays, yet are protected from the wind by the wall. The wax dust is very light and of a flour-like consistency, and is easily dispersed by a slight gust.

From the drying terraces, the leaves are, with the greatest care, transported to a nearby shed for trenching, threshing, and beating. These operations are performed by preference at night, when air conditions facilitate the settling of the powder. The shed, about 13 or 16 feet long and 10 or 13 feet wide, must be well enough constructed so that no air passes in or out.

In the shed, with the door closed, three workers proceed by three different operations, one as violent as the other, to remove the wax. The first operation consists of trenching the leaves, over tooth-like

³⁶ "Jornal da Lavoura", September 20, 1925; Pierre Denis, *op. cit.*; Jonas Gurgel; and conversations of the writer with carnauba producers and jobbers in Fortaleza.

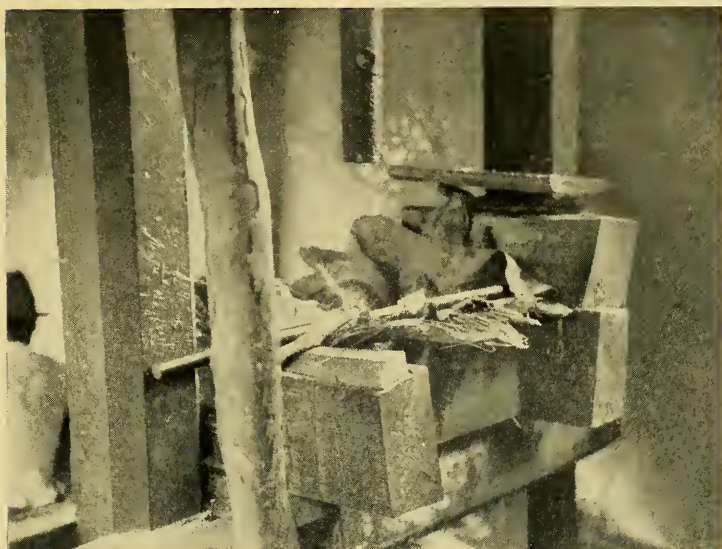


Photo by W. N. Walmsley, Jr.

A PRIMITIVE PRESS FOR EXTRACTING CARNAUBA WAX

iron blades fixed upright in a heavy block of wood. The block is about 6 inches wide and contains eight or ten teeth, with sharp edges turning away from the worker. He slashes the leaf against the teeth, which cut through the fiber, and then violently pulls it towards himself, thus splitting the ribs apart and opening up the webs. After this operation another worker seizes the leaf and with the stem towards his body and his hands on the outer edges he alternately rips the leaf apart and opens it to cause the wax to loosen. The third movement consists of beating the leaves in bunches of two to four across a kind of wooden sawhorse.

After the dust has settled, it is swept into containers such as small bins or closely woven bags preparatory to melting. The walls and the roof of the hut are gently and persistently brushed to recover as much wax as is humanly possible.³⁷

The workers extracting the wax powder, if hired, receive 4 milreis to 5 milreis (\$0.23 to \$0.28) per thousand leaves, and

³⁷ Confidential sources and personal observation.

between the three of them they can usually handle three to four thousand per day.³⁸

Melting

The melting of the wax has in the past generally been performed on the property where it has been extracted, but today it is not unusual to ship the powdered wax in bags to the coast. It is of course understood that care is taken to keep separate the *olho*, or wax from young yellow leaves called by the same name, and the *palha*, or wax from older green leaves. The powder of the first is a whitish gray, while that of the second is of a deeper grayish yellow hue.

The wax is melted in open iron pots, directly over a wood or charcoal fire. In the case of the *palha*, water is added to make the *arenosa* (chalky) wax, while to make the *gordurosa* (waxy), the flour is melted dry. In the case of *olho*, yielding prime yellow qualities, no water is added.

The wax, when melted, is strained

³⁸ Confidential source.

through cotton or burlap and through the remaining fibers of the leaves either by hand, in which case the cloth is twisted or wrung as a chamois, or under a worm-screw block press (see illustration). The wax is drained off into little pans or saucers in the case of *olho*, or into larger cans, such as kerosene or gasoline containers, in the case of the *palha*. If impurities are found, the wax may be re-melted and re-strained. The *palha* wax hardens on top of the can and the residue with some wax settles to the bottom. The block of wax on top is withdrawn and broken into smaller pieces by hammer. The wax in the residue is recovered in part by a further cooking or toasting and straining. The use of the beaten leaves for straining has as its principal purpose recovery of such wax as may have been left on them. . . . ³⁹

It is estimated that 1500 to 3000 *palhas*, or 2800 to 3500 *olhos*, are required to make one *arroba* (33 lbs.) of wax. In Ceará it is generally estimated that 3,000 leaves of the first cutting and 2,000 leaves of the second and third cuttings are needed for one *arroba* of wax. Each tree ordinarily yields therefore 2.3 to 3.5 oz., and an average of 2.8 oz., of recoverable wax per cutting. This, it is believed, would represent an efficiency of not more than sixty percent, and methods to salvage an appreciable portion of the forty percent which is lost have, for many years, occupied the inventive minds of the *Cearenses*.⁴⁰ . . .

New extraction methods

Brazilian inventors came out last year with several announcements of inventions of carnauba wax extractors. In Ceará, a portable machine weighing about 370 lbs. and extracting, according to the advertise-

ments, the wax from 50,000 leaves in an eight-hour day (215 to 330 *arrobas* of wax if the efficiency of the old process is not exceeded) has been given much publicity.⁴¹ Another and somewhat heavier machine was recently demonstrated in Rio.⁴² The machines, it is understood, may be operated either by hand or by small motor. It would appear that these machines handle the dried leaf and that therefore they do not solve the principal problem, which is the loss of 30 to 40 percent of the wax in dust form before it reaches the melting pots.

Production

Today the wax producing states have no manufacturing industries utilizing carnauba, unless exception is made of the minor home industry of candle-making. The shipments out of these states—principally Piauí, Ceará, Rio Grande do Norte and Bahia (Pernambuco shipments are made up of Ceará wax arriving overland) therefore correspond very closely to production, if allowance is made for overlapping and carryover of stocks. Furthermore, as industries in the south of Brazil do not take more than about 20 percent, and generally take much less, of the total exported abroad, one may add one-sixth or one-fifth to export figures in order to estimate production.⁴³

A very decided spurt in production occurred during the relatively prosperous years of 1936 and 1937. In 1936, production reached 10,676 metric tons (metric ton equals 2,205 lbs.), or 36.6 percent above the eleven-year average for 1925–1935, while in 1937 it is officially estimated that output attained nearly 15,000 metric tons, or 92.0 percent above that average.⁴⁴

⁴¹ "O Estado", Aug. 6, 1938, et seq.

⁴² "O Estado", July 12 and 15, August 6, 1938, and "Jornal do Commercio", Recife, August 18, 1938.

⁴³ Confidential sources.

⁴⁴ It is felt that this figure will have to be corrected downwards by about 20 or 25 percent.

³⁹ Personal observation.

⁴⁰ "Jornal da Lavoura", Nov. 20, 1925; "A Republica", Nov. 23, 1932; "Diário de Pernambuco", Mar. 9, 1933. Confidential sources.

Ceará production in 1937 is estimated at 4,200 to 4,500 metric tons, compared with about 4,700 in the preceding year.⁴⁵ The malaria epidemics in the valleys of the Assú (Rio Grande do Norte) and of the Jaguaribe (Ceará) Rivers, important carnauba regions, may reduce the 1938 crop.

Position of wax in export trade

It cannot be gainsaid that carnauba wax is a minor product in Brazil's economy. It is, however, one of the important

⁴⁵ *Confidential source.*

products on which stress is placed in the diversification policy of the nation and of the states concerned. Whereas in the five year period 1915-1919 carnauba wax exports represented but one percent of the value of all Brazilian exports, and in 1920-24, only one-half of one percent, from 1925 onward a relative increase of the weight of this wax in the export tables has been witnessed. For example, carnauba accounted for 0.7 percent of exports in 1925-29, for 0.8 percent in 1930-34, for 1.2 percent in 1935, 2.0 percent in 1936, and 1.9 percent in 1937.



Courtesy of S. C. Johnson and Son Inc.

A SMALL PART OF ONE AMERICAN COMPANY'S RESERVE OF CARNAUBA WAX

The wax obtained from the leaves of the carnauba palm in Brazil is imported into the United States in large quantities for use by manufacturers of floor wax, electric insulators, photographic films, soap, carbon paper, and other products.

In the State of Ceará, carnauba wax exports account for twenty to thirty percent of all exports.

The United States, during the past twenty-five or thirty years, at least, has always been the principal market for carnauba wax. Great Britain is generally in second place, but is sometimes replaced by Germany. The Netherlands, France and Italy are the other leading markets for the product. But the United States overshadows these other markets, as it generally

takes between forty and sixty percent of exports of this product. In the nineteen years from 1919 to 1937, Brazil shipped to the United States 49.7 percent of its wax exports in point of volume, and 51.1 percent in point of value.

The total exports (8,942 metric tons) of carnauba wax in 1937, the peak year since 1915, valued at \$6,778,000, \$439,000 more than in 1936, when the exports of the preceding year rose nearly a third in quantity and doubled in value.

Some Sixteenth Century Histories and Historians of America

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(Part VII) ¹

THERE were many historians in Southern as in Northern Hispanic America who dealt with special phases of sixteenth century affairs, especially with explorations and with the natives and their conquest. Among the writers of this nature a

few of interest to modern scholars have been selected for special discussion here.

I

Some three years after the discovery of America by Columbus, Pascual de Andagoya was born in the Province of Alava, in Spain. Little is known of his early life, but in 1514 he reached the Isthmus of Panama where he immediately took part in the conquest of the region, shortly acquiring land and becoming an *encomendero*. Soon he married an attendant of the wife of the infamous Pedro Arias Dávila (Pedrarias) and rose to the position of *regidor* in Panama City and then to Inspector-General of the Isthmus. But hearing stories of the great wealth of the

¹ *Preceding installments in this series were published in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for July and September 1933, April, May and June 1936, and May 1938. They discussed, respectively: Peter Martyr, Gonzalo Fernández de Oviedo y Valdés, and Francisco López de Gómara; Bartolomé de las Casas, José de Acosta, Bernal Díaz del Castillo, and Pedro Pizarro; Bernardino de Sahagún, Toribio de Benavente, and Jerónimo de Mendieta; Garcilasso de la Vega, Pedro de Cieza de León, and Juan de Betanzos; Alonso de Ojeda, Girolamo Benzoni, Reginaldo de Lizárraga, Juan López de Velasco, Antonio de Herrera y Tordesillas, Juan de Torquemada, and Bernardo de Vargas Machuca; and Baltasar de Obregón, Juan Suárez de Peralta, Francisco Cervantes de Salazar, Diego Durán, Agustín Dávila Padilla, and Diego de Landa.*

natives to the south, Andagoya fitted out an expedition in 1522 and explored southward along the coast of present-day Colombia. Arriving near the country called "Birú" he marched inland, fighting the natives and robbing them of gold and other valuables. On this expedition Andagoya became crippled with what may have been rheumatism, so he returned to Panama where he remained for years in poor health. There he encountered Francisco Pizarro and Diego de Almagro, who were so interested in his discoveries that they began to plan the conquest of Peru. This gives him a historical significance far greater than his literary importance. As the agent of the conquerors, Andagoya became wealthy, and in 1538 he was appointed *adelantado* and Governor of Popayán in what is now Colombia. Sometime later (1544) Andagoya was in Spain, but he returned to Peru within two years to become councilor for Pedro de la Gasca, sent to pacify the country. Andagoya remained in this position until his death in 1548.

Eight years before, Andagoya had begun his *Relación de sucesos de Pedrarias Dávila en las provincias de tierra firme* to show the character of the Governor, the nature and the methods of the conquest, and the civilization of the natives. Although he was an eyewitness of events, he had a genius for inaccuracy and was often a victim of his partisanship. As a result his account of the Incas is almost worthless, although his other facts, colored somewhat by prejudice, are more trustworthy. The manuscript found its way to Spain, but it remained unknown until the 19th century, when Martín Fernández de Navarrete discovered it in the archives at Sevilla. It was first published at Madrid in 1829 in the third volume of Navarrete's *Colección de los viajes y descubrimientos*. In 1865 at London the Hakluyt Society brought out the first

English edition, edited by Clements R. Markham, as Volume XXXIV (Original Series).

II

A writer who came to America at an early age and who was destined to be in the midst of the conquest of Peru was Francisco de Xeres.² Born in Sevilla in 1504,³ he went to the Indies at the age of 15, although his whereabouts and activities for some years thereafter are not known, except that he returned to Spain with a broken leg. In 1529 he joined Francisco Pizarro, then in Spain, as his secretary, sailing with him in January 1530 and serving for four years in Peru. In 1534 Xeres arrived in Spain with the king's share of the plunder of the Incas, with which he had been sent by the Conqueror. Some time before Pizarro had ordered his secretary to write the story of the conquest. The completed manuscript Xeres took with him to Spain where it was immediately published at Sevilla in July 1534 under the title *Verdadera relación de la conquista del Perú*.

As an eyewitness of the conquest the author was able to prepare an official account in which he showed himself intelligent and observant. Several editions of the work have been printed in various languages. The first complete English translation was that edited by Clements R. Markham for the Hakluyt Society of London, which was printed in 1872 as Volume XLVII (Original Series), under the title *A true account of the Province of Cuzco, called New Castille, conquered by Francisco Pizarro, captain to His Majesty the Emperor, our Master*.

Like many another important writer of

² Various spelled Jerez and Xerez.—EDITOR.

³ As pointed out in an edition of Xeres' work prepared by Antonio R. Rodríguez Moñino and published in Badajoz in 1929, the poem addressed to the Emperor that accompanied the narrative offers internal evidence that the date of Xeres' birth was 1499.—EDITOR.

the 16th century Xeres disappeared into the mists of history, and the remainder of his life after the appearance of his book is a complete blank.

III

Born in the year that America was discovered, Agustín de Zárate received a good education and early became an official of Charles V of Spain. For 15 years he served in the capacity of Secretary to the Royal Council of Castile. In 1543 the king sent him to Peru with the first viceroy, Blasco Núñez Vela, to take charge of the accounts of the viceroyalty. Reaching Peru early in 1544 he discovered that the civil war then in progress among the conquerors furnished admirable material for a

history, and he began meticulously to take notes. But he was unable to keep out of the conflict, for when he was sent to order Gonzalo Pizarro to disband his army, that officer seized him and placed him in prison for a short time. Later Zárate, as a member of the *audiencia*, signed a decree making Gonzalo Pizarro governor of Peru. During the disorders of this period Zárate was wounded several times and became lame in both legs and shoulders. But despite these infirmities he continued to take notes of what happened, not daring, however, to write them up in final form in America.

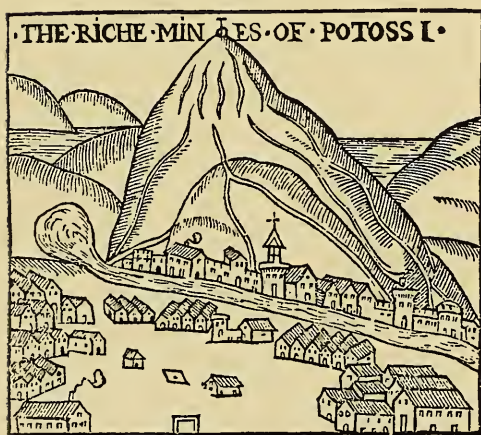
In 1545⁴ Zárate returned to Spain, where the Emperor was so pleased with his activities in Peru that he rewarded him by placing him in charge of the finances of Flanders. Meanwhile he began to piece together his notes, adding information about facts concerning the natives, the conquest, and the early occupation of the region prior to his arrival in Peru. His literary activity resulted in a manuscript entitled *Historia del descubrimiento y conquista de la provincia del Perú*, which was published at Antwerp in 1555 and dedicated to Prince Philip, who had read the work and ordered it printed. The first edition in Spain was published at Sevilla in 1577. An English translation—the first was in 1581⁵—was published in *A general history and collection of voyages* (Edinburgh, 1824) edited by Robert Kerr. According to Philip Ainsworth Means there exists no good modern edition of the work in any language.

To supplement his own observations, Zárate relied upon the accounts of eye-witnesses, and though his style is somewhat uninteresting and he shows some prejudice,

⁴ About 1551, says D. B. Thomas in his introduction to a reprint of Nicholas' translation of 1581—Agustín de Zárate: "A History of the Discovery and Conquest of Peru" (London, the Penguin Press, 1933).—EDITOR

⁵ Reprinted in 1933. See above.—EDITOR.

THE DISCOVERIE AND CONQUEST of the Prouinces of PERU, and the Navigation in the South Sea, along that Coast. And also of the ritche Mines of POTOSI.



Imprinted at London by Richard Ihoncs. Febru. 6. 1582.

TITLE PAGE OF THE FIRST ENGLISH EDITION OF ZÁRATE'S "HISTORIA DEL DESCUBRIMIENTO Y CONQUISTA DEL PERÚ"

he assembled a mass of material indispensable to the historian of the civil wars in Peru. Zárate lived to see only one edition of his work printed, for he died in 1560. A royal cedula of that year gave him laudatory mention.

IV

A great navigator who turned historian was Pedro Sarmiento de Gamboa. He was born at Alcalá, Spain, in 1532. At 18 he entered the Spanish Army and fought in the European wars from 1550 to 1555. Leaving the service in the latter year he went first to Mexico and then to Peru, where he appeared in 1557. Becoming immediately interested in the antiquities of the region, he sailed along the coast and marched overland looking for Inca remains. He was a friend of the viceroy, the Conde de Nieve, and may have held office at the viceregal court. But the viceroy died in 1564 and shortly thereafter Sarmiento was cited by the Inquisition for reputedly saying that he could make an ink which would make a woman, when written to, fall in love with the writer. In spite of his defense, he was sentenced to hear mass, stripped, holding a lighted candle in his hand, and to be perpetually banished from the country. Until he should leave he was to be imprisoned, allowed no books, and forced to fast on Wednesdays and Fridays, and required to read seven penitential psalms. From this sentence he appealed to the Pope, who revoked the order of banishment and allowed him to live in Cuzco and elsewhere in Peru until 1567.

Sarmiento, who was of an inquisitive and imaginative nature, strongly religious, somewhat superstitious, and interested in mathematics, collected much information about the Inca religion and culture. When he learned of certain islands in the Pacific which the Incas had discovered he

secured permission to search for them. The result was an expedition lasting from November 1567 to September 1569, in the course of which the Solomon Islands were found.

After Sarmiento returned to Peru the new viceroy, Don Francisco de Toledo, sent him on an expedition to capture the Inca chief Tupac Amaru I. He was also commanded to prepare a map of Peru and to compile a history of the natives for the king showing that the Incas had usurped the country from their predecessors and should be punished. In 1572 the viceroy sent the map and the history to Spain.

This work was entitled the *Segunda Parte de la historia general llamada yndica* . . . and covered the period from 565 to 1533. The first part, never written, was to have dealt with the geography of Peru, while the third part, likewise never prepared, was to have treated the Spanish conquest. The original manuscript was lost to view until the late nineteenth century, when it was discovered in the library at the University of Göttingen. Only two editions of this work have appeared. The first, with the title *Geschichte des Inkareiches*, a German introduction, and the text in Spanish was published in Spanish at Berlin in 1906. The next year the Hakluyt Society published in London, as Volume XXII (Second Series) of the Hakluyt Society publications, an English translation by Clements R. Markham entitled *History of the Incas*.

In 1573 Sarmiento was again condemned by the Inquisition for owning two astronomical rings and sentenced to banishment. Again Toledo intervened. In 1574 our author was ordered banished by the Inquisition for practicing palmistry, but the viceroy prevented the execution of this sentence.

In 1579 Francis Drake appeared at

Callao and Sarmiento was ordered to chase him away. He followed Drake to Panama and was then sent to fortify the Straits of Magellan to prevent Drake's return to the Atlantic. The result of this attempt was a report written to the Spanish king, first published in Spanish in Madrid in 1768, which Clements R. Markham translated for the Hakluyt Society (London 1895) as Volume XCI (First Series) under the title *Narratives of the voyages of Pedro Sarmiento de Gamboa to the Straits of Magellan*.

After numerous other adventures in Brazil, England, Spain, Mexico, and the Philippines Sarmiento died, probably at Manila, about 1609.

As a writer Sarmiento was a victim of his prejudices, although in scientific matters he seems to have been very painstaking. He was given to flattery, and often wrote for a purpose. Hence he was often unjust and inaccurate, and he frequently prostituted history for political purposes.

V

The conquest of Tierra Firme, together with Darien and parts of the Caribbean colonies, was told in verse by the Spanish poet, adventurer, and historian, Juan Castellanos. This author was born in the province of Sevilla, Spain, and was baptized on March 9, 1522. Like many other men of his age he went to America to seek his fortune. He resided chiefly in Nueva Granada (now Colombia) in Tierra Firme. For some time he served as a soldier, but he kept notes about men and their deeds, which he converted into verse, believing that he could more forcefully tell his story in this medium. In time he became wealthy, but his conscience often troubled him because he felt that his riches had been gained at the expense of the Indians. In consequence, to atone somewhat for his past life, he entered



PORTRAIT OF ERCILLA

Published in the 1578 edition of "La Araucana."

the clergy and finally became priest at Tunja.

It was here that he composed his epic poem of some 150,000 lines entitled *Elegías de varones ilustres de Indias*. The work was written in four parts, the first of which was published at Madrid in 1589. Parts two and three, together with part one, appeared first at Madrid in 1847, while part four was published at Madrid in 1886 in two volumes under the title *Historia del nuevo reino de Granada*. The period covered by the whole poem is from the coming of Columbus to 1592. The work consists of eulogies, elegies, biographies, and history. Like some of his contemporaries he was over-enthusiastic and gullible, but he wrote clearly and interestingly, and while he may not be classed as a great historian his work today has great interest and some value. Caste-

llanos died in 1607, according to the Notaría de Tunja, Libro Protocolo de 1607.

VI

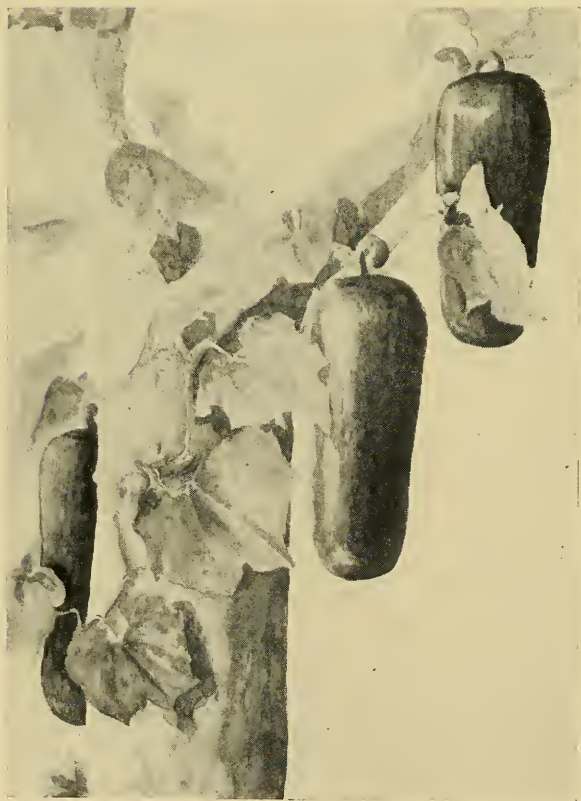
Another poet-historian of the conquest was Alonso de Ercilla y Zúñiga, born at Madrid August 7, 1533. Of noble birth and good education he was a page to Prince Philip, with whom he journeyed about Europe from 1544 to 1551 and with whom he went to England when that prince married Queen Mary in 1554. There Ercilla heard of uprisings in Peru and of the death of Valdivia at the hands of the Araucanian Indians in Chile, and he decided to go to the Indies. The opportunity presented itself in 1555, when he accompanied Viceroy Andrés Hurtado de Mendoza to Peru, arriving there in the middle of the next year. Hardly had he landed than he went on an expedition to Chile to put down the Araucanian Indians. The force was led by the viceroy's son, García Hurtado de Mendoza, then twenty-one years of age, who had been appointed governor of Chile. Ercilla recorded in verse his experiences: his desperate fighting in seven battles, his adventures with the natives, his sentence to death and later reprieve, and his search for the infamous Lope de Aguirre.

The result was the epic poem *La Araucana*.

It is divided into three parts. The first portion was published at Madrid in 1569, while the second part, together with the first, was printed at the same place in 1578. The third part appeared with the two preceding sections in 1589 at Madrid. The work was continued in two more parts by Diego de Santisteban Osorio, but its historical importance diminished with the additions. The work has never been completely translated into English, but at New York in 1808 William Hayley and H. Boyd published a very small portion.

Ercilla's work constitutes a valuable historical account, despite the fact that he wanders from the main theme occasionally, for he took great pride in making it as accurate as possible. In some respects it is better history than poetry. In any case it should be read by all students of the early Chilean conquest.

Sick and weary after his harrowing experiences in America, Ercilla returned to Spain in 1563 shortly before his thirtieth birthday. From there he visited various parts of Europe, and in 1570 he married. In 1576 he was appointed gentleman of the bed-chamber to the Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. In 1577 he returned to Spain, seeking assistance from his former friend Philip II. Little is known of his later life; he died at Madrid in 1594.



FLORA OF THE REPUBLIC OF PANAMA

In November 1938 the National Museum in Washington exhibited a collection of water colors of the flora of Panama by Marie Louise Evans, who has for many years lived in the Canal Zone. Her interest in this subject was aroused by her expeditions into the interior of the country with her husband, a noted authority on the woods of the tropics. United States museums and garden clubs alike have shown these pictures, the former for their scientific accuracy and the latter for exotic interest and charm; both have recognized the artist's skill and sensitiveness of feeling. Above: The akee, named *Blighia sapida* in honor of Captain Bligh of the *Bounty*, is a tree whose orange-red fruits are highly esteemed. Left: The purplish fruit of the *chila*, a vine belonging to the gourd family, is eaten as a vegetable, raw as a salad when green, or as a sweet when ripe.

FLORA OF THE REPUBLIC OF PANAMA

Mrs. Evans has depicted practically every known species of the flora of Panama. Prominent among them are the gorgeous flowering trees with yellow, lavender, scarlet, or white flowers. "Many of the flowers that Mrs. Evans has painted are flame-colored," said Leila Mechlin in the *Washington Star*, "and in the midst of heavy green foliage they are gorgeous indeed. Others are equally extreme in delicacy of texture and tint; for example, lavender shading into white and so fragile that it would seem as though a breath would shatter them, and yet they are brought forth by nature in great abundance, in multiple clusters rather than in single blossoms." Right: *Gloriosa rothschildiana*, a member of the lily family. Below: Night-blooming cereus, which in Panama is a climber, and sometimes has as many as 400 blooms on one clump. The fruit is magenta-colored and edible.





Pan American Union NOTES

Eighth International Conference of American States

An account of the Eighth International Conference of American States, held in Lima from December 9 to 27, 1938, will appear in an early edition of the BULLETIN.

Motion pictures of Mexico and Guatemala

At the invitation of His Excellency Dr. Francisco Castillo Najera, Ambassador of Mexico at Washington, an audience assembled in the Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union in November to see colored motion pictures of Mexico taken by Mr. Ralph E. Gray. The pictures are not only of exceptional artistic merit but also of great value as documents of Mexican folklore, since Mr. Gray has penetrated many little-known districts of Mexico and photographed Indian fiestas and dances. A few days after this exhibition the Inter-

national Association of Amateur Motion Picture Photographers awarded first prize to one of Mr. Gray's films in a competition in which there were entries from thirty-two countries.

A showing of additional films on Mexico and some on Guatemala was held on December 16 at the invitation of His Excellency Dr. Adrián Recinos, Minister of Guatemala, and Sr. Luis Quintanilla, Chargé d'Affaires of Mexico.

It was three years ago that Mr. Gray, having gone to Mexico for reasons of health, took up motion picture photography as a pastime. He traveled widely in that country, later exhibiting his films in the United States at his own expense, solely for the purpose of making Mexico better known to its northern neighbor. After a trip to Guatemala, whose fascination conquered him completely, Mr. Gray has decided to extend his travels to all Latin America. The Guatemalan films also

deal largely with Indians and their picturesque costumes and customs.

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Election of officers

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union held its first regular meeting of the year 1938-39 on Wednesday, November 2. The Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, was reelected chairman of the Board, and Sr. José Richling, Minister of Uruguay in the United States, vice chairman, in compliance with the custom of the Board of electing to the latter office the member of longest standing who has not already held the position.

Uniformity of foreign exchange legislation

The Governing Board passed a report by the Committee of Experts on Uniformity of Foreign Exchange Legislation, in which it was suggested that the Board submit to the Eighth International Conference of American States two draft resolutions, approved at the same time.

Resolutions of condolence

At the same meeting the Board passed unanimously two resolutions of condolence. The first, presented by the Chairman, was on the death of Dr. Carlos F. Grisanti, former Minister of Venezuela in the United States and member of the Governing Board, and the second,¹ presented by

¹For the text of this resolution, see the December 1938 issue of the BULLETIN.

the Minister of Uruguay, was on the death of Dr. John Barrett, former Director General of the Pan American Union.

The resolution concerning Dr. Grisanti was as follows:

WHEREAS, The Governing Board of the Pan American Union has learned of the death of His Excellency, Señor Dr. Carlos F. Grisanti, former Minister of Venezuela to Washington and representative of Venezuela on the Governing Board; and

WHEREAS, During his service as a member of the Board Dr. Grisanti showed constant interest in and made important contributions to the work of the Union,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

1. To place on the minutes of this meeting its profound regret at the death of His Excellency, Señor Dr. Carlos F. Grisanti.
2. To request the Director General to transmit this resolution to the Government of Venezuela and to the family of the deceased.

Centenary of the Brazilian Institute of Geography and History

The Governing Board also passed the following resolution on the recent completion of its first century by this noted institution:

WHEREAS, October 21st marked the hundredth anniversary of the founding of the Brazilian Historical and Geographical Institute; and

WHEREAS, During the century of its existence the Institute has made important contributions in all branches of history and geography,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

To extend most cordial congratulations to the Brazilian Historical and Geographical Institute on the occasion of the first centenary of its foundation.

PAN AMERICAN *Progress*

President Vargas' report to the Brazilian Nation

On November 10th, 1938, *O Estado Novo*, or New Regime established through fundamental changes in the Brazilian constitution, celebrated its first anniversary,¹ and it was, appropriately, the occasion for a general report by President Getulio Vargas on the administrative activities of the year. The report, which was given out at an unusually large press conference held the day before in the same hall of beautiful Cattete Palace where Emperor Dom Pedro used to receive his Ministers, expounded also the policies to be pursued by the Government in the coming years. Like the presidential messages to Congress, delivered in the past, it dealt with vital questions in the social and economic fields as well as in the field of international relations.

With regard to reports emanating from various sources relative to a vast economic plan to be undertaken by the Government, President Vargas said that for several months he had been in consultation with his advisers, formulating the necessary bases for a working program, subject to available resources, to begin in 1939. Such a program, which would cover a minimum period of five years, is justified by the need of coordination and continuity in all administrative activity, according to the President, who added that lack of continuity would not only cause waste, but also disturbances of far-reaching consequences in the national life.

Special attention has been given all factors looking toward a balanced econ-

omy, seeking to satisfy the needs of all producing classes. In this connection, the country is faced with an anomalous situation, for while her domestic market has expanded considerably—adding to the economic resistance of the nation—and her exports are greater and more varied, there has been a difference of approximately ten dollars between each ton sold and each ton purchased, causing a deficit in her trade balance. Thus it is easy to understand, according to the President, why the Government should encourage the development of all mineral resources for the export market, inasmuch as they would furnish valuable factors for balancing foreign trade. Expansion of domestic industries would mean, furthermore, higher living standards for the people. “It is urgent, therefore, to change the traditional policy of the country, based mainly on agriculture, and to make an effort to develop all available sources of wealth.”

In the matter of foreign financial commitments, President Vargas stated that prevailing circumstances called for continued suspension of service on the foreign debt, particularly because of the close relationship between the prices commanded abroad by Brazilian products—chiefly coffee—and the foreign exchange available in the Brazilian market. He explained that the foreign exchange available was scarcely sufficient to meet urgent current needs, but that “the Government stands ready, nevertheless, to examine jointly with the interested parties any practical proposal which may benefit its creditors while safeguarding our national economy.”

¹ See BULLETIN of March, 1938, p. 181.

Reviewing the situation in the coffee industry, the President called attention to the satisfactory results of the latest control regulations which brought about a radical change and made necessary certain collateral measures which are being taken as circumstances require them. Conditions revealed by statistics at the close of 1937, he pointed out, called for prompt action in order to check the progressive contraction of exports. In February of that year coffee exports amounted to only 921,947 bags; and, with the situation unchanged in subsequent months, the agricultural year closed in June with a decline of 2,313,661 bags in coffee exports, which that year totalled 13,257,881 as against 15,571,542 bags in 1935-36. With the exception of 1932-33, when the port of Santos was closed for three months, conditions in the export trade had not been so critical since 1926-27. The record low was registered in the month of June, 1937, when only 735,595 bags were sold abroad. "This," said the President, "made it necessary to abandon the price-fixing policy, reduce tax burdens and promote, by all possible means, an increase in our exports." During the first 10 months of 1937, he added, Brazil exported 9,800,000 bags of coffee; but, under the relief measures taken, exports for the same period in 1938 reached the high figure of 14,500,000 bags, an increase of over 48 per cent.

Future plans in the coffee situation tend to meet adequately any competition in the world markets; to permit the free flow of production so as to preclude a surplus in the coming crop; and to obtain better prices in the domestic market. "It is a matter," says President Vargas, "of a well directed propaganda campaign in those countries where our product is already known, in an endeavor to boost our sales; of seeking direct trade relations with those that receive our commodities through

others, and of obtaining reasonable tariffs from countries which levy heavy duties on our commodities." It is not Brazil's intention to engage in tariff wars, he added, "but we must insist upon fair treatment for our products." Then he warned: "We try to maintain good relations with civilized peoples without preferences or ideological or political grounds; . . . but if we are forced to adopt a policy of strict reciprocity—to buy from those who buy from us—it will not be our fault."

The President defended wholeheartedly the creation of the Central Bank, stating that "no foreign bank operating in Brazil will be interested in protecting an industry which would compete with similar industries of its country of origin," and that, consequently, the Government is now studying the means of effecting the nationalization of banks decreed by the Constitution, as well as the nationalization of insurance against all risks. He denied, however, that Brazil desired to hamper foreign capital, adding that "we are exclusively interested in capital which will enrich not only its owners but also our national economy. Capital whose revenues emigrate is a passive, and at times a negative, factor in the march of national progress."

The report dealt at length with other important matters. The acquisition of gold continues with regularity and, on November 5, 1938 there were 29,134,074,646 grams of that metal in the nation's vaults. Immigration, like foreign capital, is welcomed by Brazil, but the immigrant must be a contributor to progress and not a factor promoting disorder and disintegration. In the very same manner that "we seek to destroy regionalistic excesses and seditious partisanship among our nationals", said the President, "with much more justification we must protect our-

selves against the infiltration of elements that, once in our midst, may turn out to be sources of ideological or racial dissension."

In the matter of land colonization, it was deplored that no definite and firm policy has been followed so far, but prompt action is promised in this connection. In fact, a Colonization and Immigration Council is already in operation, its aim being to conduct a rational exploration of fertile lands in the central and western regions of the country, in order to establish in them new centers of population. Domestic industries have received much needed aid. An appreciable improvement in planting, cultivation and selection methods has increased Brazilian cotton exports—220,000,000 pounds were shipped in the first 8 months of 1938—and the outlook for the future is even more promising. On the other hand, efforts are being made to limit the importation of raw materials, while encouraging the purchase of manufacturing machinery which would help the country's basic industries. "Not that we desire to create obstacles to world commerce, nor to establish an economic autarchy," says the report, "but we must avoid the danger of becoming merely a producer of raw materials. Every agricultural country sells its products cheap and pays high prices for what it consumes."

Interesting paragraphs were devoted to exploration for, and exploitation of, mineral deposits; problems relative to the production of coal; legislation for the protection of water power and petroleum resources, pointing in the latter case to the good work being done by the National Petroleum Council and, in general, to the recent petroleum legislation which seems to preclude any possibility of Brazil becoming the battlefield of world trusts fighting over reserves and markets; administrative organization; irrigation in the drought-ridden states of the Northwest,

particularly Parahyba, Rio Grande do Norte and Ceará; and rational development of the lowlands close to Rio de Janeiro, by establishing agricultural colonies there as a means of lowering the cost of living in the capital. The Government, said President Vargas, would put an end to the activities of the so-called *grileiros*, who exploit in a disorderly fashion land they falsely claim to own, destroying forests and selling the denuded tracts for cattle-raising, without any regard for the nation's interests. Appropriate legislation is now under study to remedy this situation.

The present administration, according to the President's report, is particularly active in matters of social welfare, following in the main the program initiated in the year 1930. All social classes have benefited by the measures adopted, with the possible exception of the farmer, whose plight is now the object of earnest consideration. These measures have included aid to the old and disabled, and pensions to widows and orphans. Current plans call for more and better housing facilities for workers; improved working conditions in shops and factories; increased activity in the campaign against malnutrition, including the establishment, in industrial centers, of clean and comfortable restaurants where workers may obtain a healthful meal at low cost; the decrease of prices of articles of prime necessity; continued development of the popular savings system, encouraging thrift among the laboring classes; action to reduce costs of loading and unloading commodities intended for export, by providing for direct dealing between shippers and longshoremen, and eliminating the middlemen who are responsible for the excessive rates which hamper the free flow of domestic products to foreign markets; and several other measures of like importance.

Turning his attention other fields, the President mentioned the steps taken to codify the national laws, a commission of prominent jurists and professors having been entrusted with the task of revising and modernizing existing codes. The Penal Code, the Code of Criminal Procedure, and the Code of Civil and Commercial Procedure have been completed and await only a final revision and scrutiny by recognized legal experts, before they are put into force. The Civil Code is undergoing revision at present, and the ground work is being done for the eventual drafting of a Brazilian Commercial Code.

Public education, the President asserted, will be among the questions to be taken up at a proposed Conference of National Interventors, with a view to obtaining a better coordination than is possible at present. "We should initiate now," he said, "a program truly adapted to the peculiarities of each region, taking the population of children of school age as the basis for the distribution of budgeted funds; the unification of all educational methods, reforming them along purely nationalistic lines; and a complete coordination of effort among the national, state and municipal governments to make attendance in primary schools compulsory in fact, and not merely in theory."

The welfare of future generations, the President continued, demands that special protection be accorded to both the child and the mother; and that a scientific effort be made to improve the human race in the various centers of population. There is a project, now under consideration, to create a Children's Bureau that would centralize all activities in this field.

The President's report closed with a brief statement on international relations, in which he expressed the satisfaction of the people and Government of Brazil at "the reinforcement and ratification of the prin-

ciples of international law in this hemisphere." He mentioned the final settlement of the Chaco controversy as "a clear and eloquent example of the spirit of political understanding and utmost solidarity" which prevails among the American nations; a condition which renders more stable and secure her friendly relations with the other republics, and particularly with her neighbors. "The treaty with Bolivia, now in effect," he said, "opens to that sister nation the petroleum market of Brazil, while the extension of our railway transportations system to that same Republic and to Paraguay enhances the facilities for commercial interchange." The beneficial results of a trade mission sent recently to Venezuela are already in evidence. On the other hand, visits made by the Minister of Foreign Relations of Chile and by an Argentine military commission; the proposed meeting of the Finance Ministers of Argentina, Uruguay and Brazil, to negotiate a customs pact and to consider other trade questions; and the recent Paraguayan decree relative to the teaching of Portuguese in the public schools of that Republic, constitute, according to President Vargas, "important landmarks in the ever-improving relations between the peoples of this hemisphere."—F. J. H.

The United States plans cooperation with the other American Republics

In accordance with President Roosevelt's suggestion, an Inter-Departmental Committee was established last May to examine the subject of cooperation with the other American republics, and to draft for his consideration a concrete program designed to render closer and more effective the relationship between the government and people of the United States and its neighbors in the twenty republics to the south. The Committee, which met from

May to November of this year, was composed of representatives of thirteen departments and agencies, namely, the Departments of State, Treasury, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor, the Library of Congress, the Smithsonian Institution, the Federal Communications Commission, the United States Maritime Commission, the Export-Import Bank, the National Emergency Council, and the Civil Aeronautics Authority.

The field of cooperation with respect to each agency was thoroughly explored. As a result of its extensive studies the Committee is of the opinion that there is a wide range of activity in which the Government of the United States is in a position to cooperate with the other American republics for their mutual advantage. The Committee first surveyed the many ways in which the various departments and agencies of this Government are now cooperating with the governments of the other American countries. The Committee was gratified to find that much is already being done. Nearly every agency represented is already engaged in carrying on activities, frequently on a cooperative basis, of direct interest to all the American nations.

The Committee next gave consideration as to how each agency might appropriately enhance the nature and measure of its cooperation. This involved the sifting of a very large amount of material and its evaluation in terms of reciprocal interest abroad—in other words, a determination of whether or not a given project afforded a practical basis for genuine cooperative effort. Following a careful examination of more than one hundred suggestions submitted, and leaving aside several for further study by the agencies concerned, the Committee made a selection of those which it considered the most important, urgent and worthwhile, and these were embodied in a detailed program. This

program gives a brief description of each of the projects endorsed, together with an estimate of cost, totaling almost \$1,000,000, for which appropriations will be sought in the next session of Congress. For some of the 74 different proposals no additional funds are needed, and some are in fact already in operation under the present budget.

The Committee has approved projects from every agency represented, and considering that thirteen departments and agencies participated in the work, it is at once apparent that a very broad segment of governmental activity has been covered. There are projects for studies, investigations and enterprises to be carried out in such of the American republics as are desirous of engaging in them. There are other projects to be carried on cooperatively within the United States. There are still other projects for extending the educational, scientific and technical facilities of the several agencies.

The areas of direct intergovernmental cooperation will include those of public health, public administration, cooperation in economic, commercial and fiscal matters, labor, agriculture, communications, et cetera.

In the field of direct intergovernmental cooperation, it is evident that a wide use will be sought of Act No. 545, 75th Congress, which was signed by the President last June. This Act authorizes the loan to foreign governments, at their request, of the services of civilian officials and technical experts of this Government. Thereunder, expert assistance in immigration matters is already being extended in one of the American republics, and an agricultural survey is being conducted by an official of the Department of Agriculture in another. Numerous additional requests are under consideration, and there have been many informal inquiries which

may shortly result in formal requests. In the opinion of the Committee, this Act may well become a cornerstone on which many future cooperative efforts of a practical nature will be based.

As a corollary to the foregoing cooperation, the Committee invited attention to the offer of service training for accredited foreign officials in various of the bureaus and agencies of this Government, such as certain of the branches of the Departments of Agriculture, Interior and Commerce, and the Library of Congress.

Taking cognizance of the increasing importance of cultural relationships, the Congress last June provided for the establishment in the Department of State of the Division of Cultural Relations. The Division of Cultural Relations will handle matters pertaining to inter-American treaties and conventions in that field, exchanges of students and professors, library fellowships, et cetera. This office is already functioning, as is the newly established Division of International Communications, through which the relations of this Government with foreign governments relative to the important international aspects of shipping, aviation, radio, and other means of communication will be centralized.

The Committee believes that it would be desirable to make available to the other American republics in Spanish, Portuguese and French translations certain of the publications of this Government, especially those relating to public health, educational, scientific and technical matters, commerce, conservation, et cetera, and it is accordingly recommending that a central Translating Office for this purpose be established in the Department of State.

The Committee believes it desirable to indicate that its discussions were based on the premise that the republics of the New World have the same aspirations; that the welfare of the community of American na-

tions demands their increasingly close and friendly association, and that through a program of practical, reciprocal cooperation the fulfillment of our common American ideals can be brought appreciably closer to achievement.

If this premise is correct, and the Committee is profoundly convinced that it is, then the program outlined in detail is merely a point of departure in the direction of an increasingly vigorous and affirmative relationship between the republics of this hemisphere,—a relationship founded on voluntary cooperation among partners living as friendly neighbors in an American world.

The report was signed by Sumner Welles, Under Secretary of State, and Chairman of the Committee; Harold L. Ickes, Secretary of the Interior; Henry A. Wallace, Secretary of Agriculture; Daniel C. Roper, Secretary of Commerce; Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor; Wayne C. Taylor, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury; and Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, and was presented to the President on November 10, 1938.

Trujillo Peace Prize established in the Dominican Republic

The Trujillo peace prize of 50,000 pesos was established in the Dominican Republic by a law signed by President Peynado on October 5, 1938. It will be awarded annually to "individuals, societies, associations, or organizations that have most notably worked for the reestablishment or strengthening of peace between nations or for the spread or development or positive consecration of the principles or doctrines on which such peace is based." In addition to the money, individuals will receive a gold medal and a diploma, while organizations will be given a bronze plaque and a diploma.

The recipient of the peace prize will be announced on July 15, and the award will be made on October 24, the birthday of ex-President Trujillo, for whom the prize was named.

The national budget will contain an appropriation sufficient to cover the amount of the prize and the cost of striking the medal or plaque, making the diploma, and any other expenses connected with the award.

The Trujillo Peace Prize Committee was announced on October 21, as follows: Gen. Rafael L. Trujillo Molina, chairman; Dr. Manuel Troncoso de la Concha; the Secretary of Foreign Affairs, *ex officio*; Sr. Virgilio Díaz Ordóñez; and Sr. Julio Ortega Frier.

Regulation of employment agencies in Peru

To keep in close contact with employment agencies, and to guarantee the maintenance of good faith and justice between all parties concerned, the government of Peru issued a decree on September 2, 1938, regulating such agencies.

All employment agencies or exchanges, whether free or fee-charging, independent or affiliated with business enterprises, unions, cooperative societies or other organizations, must be duly authorized by and registered with the Bureau of Social Welfare. For each agency, the Bureau of Social Welfare must carry information embracing the amount of capital invested, work undertaken, persons in control, and rates of fees and commissions. Before permission to establish an agency or exchange may be granted, information regarding the character and standing of the persons soliciting the permit must be requested from the local authorities of the district involved.

For failure to abide by the regulations prescribed by the decree, the agencies will

be subject to fine, temporary suspension, or closure. If agencies are established in prohibited localities; if they fail to display the authorized permit; if they deceive an applicant or worker, or take commissions in advance, they will be held liable to the above penalties. Likewise, each agency will be held accountable for the accuracy of the information recorded in its books.

Advertising restrictions in Cuba

By a decree dated November 4, 1938, the Cuban Congress declared unlawful the display of advertising matter at or in the following places: road intersections, railroad crossings, highway curves, historical sites, a zone 164 feet on either side of every road, and places of tourist interest.

Individuals contemplating setting up advertising matter near any road or public highway must present their plans to the Public Works Department. This organization will discuss these projects with the Cuban National Tourist Corporation before granting or refusing permission.

If advertisements not in conformity with the regulations set down by this decree have not been removed within thirty days, the National Tourist Corporation is authorized to remove them at the expense of the owners. Any infringement of this decree will subject the violator to a fine of from 10 to 50 pesos.

National Tourist Bureau in Paraguay

In an endeavor to develop tourist travel in Paraguay, President Paiva issued a decree on September 27, 1938, creating the National Tourist Bureau under the Ministry of Foreign Relations. The Director General of the Bureau is Dr. Eduardo Pena, a prominent member of the Paraguayan Tourist Club.

In addition to promoting the construction of new hotels and highways, and the lowering of transportation rates, the Bureau will seek the cooperation of foreign travel agencies to increase transportation facilities.

Argentine Federation of University Women

The Argentine Federation was recognized as a branch of the International Federation of University Women in August 1938. It has been in active existence for more than two years.

Among its activities is a monthly luncheon meeting addressed by one of the members. The talks given on such occasions have included: *The reeducation of prisoners*, by Dr. Josefina Quiroga; *Principles of the care of abnormal children*, by Señorita Carolina Tobar García; *Impressions of a summer school course at the University of Chile*, by Señorita Manon Guaglianone; *My trip to Brazil*, by Dr. Paulina Satanowsky; and *Comments on Pascal*, by Dr. Esther Smith Bunge.

The chief project now before the Federation is that of founding a residence for women university students, a suggestion made by Dr. Ana H. Rose. A request has been made of the Chamber of Deputies for an appropriation for the installation of such a residence and an annual sum for its support.

The Federation is supporting the bill before Congress granting suffrage to women. It has been in close contact with the Brazilian and Uruguayan Federation

through visits made by its president and members.

The Federation offered a prize of three hundred pesos for an essay on Sarmiento in connection with the fiftieth anniversary of the death of this great Argentine President and educator, commemorated last September.

The 1938 club year closed with a balance of nearly four thousand pesos, which the federation hopes to increase until it can have club rooms of its own.

Dr. María Teresa F. de Gaudino was reelected president of the Federation for the year 1938-1939. She is a physician who, in addition to a large private practice, has charge of the maternity pavilion in the Army Hospital at Buenos Aires. The other officers and members of the executive committee include 2 doctors of philosophy, 4 lawyers, 6 physicians, 2 dentists, 2 chemists, 1 biologist, 1 engineer, and 1 teacher.

National Symphony Orchestra created in Peru

By law 8743, of August 11, 1938, the Peruvian National Symphony Orchestra was created. The law authorizes the signing of contracts with such foreign musicians as may be necessary for the organization and functioning of the orchestra with the cooperation of native musicians. Until a special appropriation is made for this purpose, the Ministry of the Treasury is authorized to open an extraordinary credit of 110,000 gold soles.

NECROLOGY

GREGORIO AMUNÁTEGUI SOLAR.—On July 20, 1938, as the result of injuries sustained in an automobile accident, Dr. Gregorio Amunátegui died in Santiago, Chile, at the age of 70.

Dr. Amunátegui was born in Santiago on January 15, 1868. After preparatory studies at the National Institute, he entered the Medical School, where he obtained his degree as a surgeon in 1891. Studies in Berlin followed, and in 1894 he attended the International Medical Congress that met in Rome. On his return to Chile, he was appointed professor at the Medical School, where he taught for many years. Later he was Dean of the School of Medical and Biological Sciences, and director of the Hospital of San Vicente de Paúl (1919–20). From 1922–24 he was rector (president) of the University of Chile. Twice, in 1916 and 1924, he was a member of the Cabinet, as Minister of Justice and Public Instruction.

Dr. Amunátegui was a delegate to many national and international educational and medical congresses. His books and articles on various phases of medicine were highly regarded.

JOSÉ IGNACIO ESCOBAR.—An honored figure in the life and letters of Columbia, Dr. José Ignacio Escobar, died in Bogotá on September 17, 1938, at the age of 90.

Dr. Escobar was born in Antioquia on February 2, 1848. When he was 12 years old, he went to Bogotá to study, and was admitted to the bar in 1870. After a brief excursion into public life, Dr. Escobar became a member of the law firm of Gutiérrez y Escobar, and for 40 years the two partners carried on a flourishing practice.

Upon his retirement, Dr. Escobar de-

voted himself to a study of the Spanish classics. Literature had long been one of his chief interests, and he had won renown as a teacher, especially in the Colegio de San Bartolomé, the School of Literature and Philosophy, and the Normal School. On November 10, 1933, he was made an honorary member of the Colombian Academy of Letters.

ZACARÍAS GIL.—On September 12, 1938, Dr. Zacarías Gil, a member of the Supreme Court of Bolivia, died in the city of Sucre. Dr. Gil, who was a native of Santa Cruz de la Sierra, studied law and became a member of the bar at an early age. In addition to following his legal career, he taught in the Colegio Nacional, in the Seminary, and, later, in the Law School of his native city. He also had served as inspector general of education, president of the municipal council, and secretary, treasurer, and national delegate in the Territory of Colonias.

JOSÉ LUIS TEJADA SORZANO.—Ex-President José Luis Tejada Sorzano of Bolivia died on October 3, 1938, in Arica, Chile, at the age of 57.

In November 1934 Dr. Tejada, then Vice President of his country, was made President when President Daniel Salamanca was deposed. Eight months later, the Chamber of Deputies prolonged his term of office to August 1936. It was during his administration that the preliminary peace treaty with Paraguay was signed, earning for Dr. Tejada the title of "Peace President." In May 1936 the Military Junta of Government decided to replace his government by a military administration, and on the 17th of that month he left Bolivia for Chile, where he engaged in business until his death.

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BULLETIN OF THE Pan American Union



JUAN FERNÁNDEZ ISLAND, CHILE

FEBRUARY

1939

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General*

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima, Peru, in 1938. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant

Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, intellectual and agricultural cooperation, juridical matters, and travel, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 90,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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At side: PATIO OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION





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RIO DE JANEIRO FROM SUGAR LOAF

The bay and mountains that make Rio incomparable extend in full beauty of form and color before an observer on Sugar Loaf, a lofty islet rising between ocean and harbor. A cable car transports passengers to this magnificent vantage point, from which it is fascinating to watch the sun go down and the city bespangle itself with lights. On Corcovado is seen the hundred-foot statue of Christ the Redeemer, which by day and night is a landmark for travellers.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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FEBRUARY 1939

Rio de Janeiro Glamour under the Southern Cross

CHARLES D'EMERY

It was not midsummer, but March by the calendar. To the visitor from the North, the calendar is topsy-turvy below the equator if he thinks of it, but in fact he ignores it entirely until it is forcibly brought to his attention. Then the momentary vision of a bleak freezing February or a blustering cold March makes one happy indeed to realize that February or March need not be bleak or cold, for here in Rio we are surrounded with all the glamour of the tropics. Azure skies are above us, and our eyes rest on stately palms whose fronds wave lazily in the gentle zephyrs, on shimmering lagoons, and on fantastic mountains whose tops, cloud-enveloped, are reflected in the mirror-like waters.

Nature was in its most lavish mood when it did the landscaping for Rio, and man has made the most of it, so that today the City of the River of January is incomparable in its beauty.

Much has been written of this tropical city, of its modern buildings, its palatial hotels and beautiful villas, but all these things you can also find elsewhere, so let us confine ourselves to Rio's natural grandeur.

As we entered the harbor we had our first view of that famous conical rock known as Sugar Loaf, rising majestically from the sea to a height of 1200 feet.

Long black threads connect it with another rocky elevation, and suspended from them was a tiny car that traveled slowly across the half-mile chasm. We learned later that the little car carries twenty passengers at a time, but our first glimpse of the aerial railway reminded us of a small spider, spinning a new web.

Passing the rock, we saw gracefully curving Botafago Bay, whose real beauty can be appreciated only from the top of Sugar Loaf. Beyond the bay appeared Flamengo

Beach and a small island on which a Naval Academy and new airfield have been built for the flying cadets. Then came the docks, with ships from all the world, slim yachts from colder climes, and the somber grey guardians of the seas.

Our big ship docked at the foot of Rio's main business street, Avenida Rio Branco. A skyscraper office building with broadcasting station soared above us as we edged into the dock. This was by no means an ordinary landing, for we nosed right into a tropical park under whose shade trees were many fine American cars, waiting to take us on our various trips—to Petropolis, where the Emperor Dom Pedro held his summer court, to the forests of Tijuca, to Boa Vista, to Mesa do Imperador and to many other places, each offering us new visions of loveliness.

But let us go to those two magnificent mountains towering above the city, Sugar Loaf and Corcovado, for they are the outstanding features of Rio. As our car flashes down Avenida Rio Branco with its many rows of trees, it passes countless sidewalk cafés, ultra modern buildings, the School of Fine Arts, the National Library, and the Municipal Theatre, reminding one of the Grand Opera in Paris. The sidewalks attract our attention by their unique designs in black and white mosaic. At the end of the Avenida we pass the ornate building, called the Monroe Palace, that once housed the Brazilian exhibit at the St. Louis Fair, and was later removed to its present location to serve as the home of the Senate.

Leaving the Avenida Rio Branco we enter the beautiful shore drive called Avenida Beira Mar, set between long lanes of royal palms, past whose majestic columns we see the blue waters of the bay close on the left. We pass Paris Park with its lagoon and sparkling fountains, then drive along the crescent-shaped Botafogo

Bay to the Sugar Loaf aerial railway station. We find that the black threads that we saw from the harbor entrance are powerful steel cables and we feel perfectly safe as we glide smoothly skywards, with the panorama of the city ever expanding below us. The station looks toy-like as we rise; the ocean beyond the headlands assumes a blue-black colour rich as indigo.

At Penedo da Urca, a peak lower than Sugar Loaf, we alight from our aerial car. After walking a short distance, we stop for a moment to gaze down upon the fanciful expanse beneath us; then entering our second sky-car we are wafted across a span half a mile long. Directly in front of us looms the massive granite cone of Sugar Loaf, rising solitary from the sea.

As we approach closer to the massive granite walls of Sugar Loaf, they seem for a moment unsurmountable, but our car swings silently and safely into the steel and concrete haven.

And now we are looking down upon the fabulous city of Rio. Above are skies of azure reflected in a sea sprinkled with islands; nearby are great fantastic mountains tumbling into whimsical inlets, bays, lagoons and long sweeping crescents of sand, white as sugar, outlining sharply the capricious coast line. To the north-west is the city itself, inlaid upon a ground of freshest green, running down almost to the water and daintily edged with a dancing ribbon of spraying foam and deep-sea blue.

Beyond the city, rising tier upon tier, is a backdrop of serrated and verdant hills and mountains culminating in Tijuca.

On another day we drive to the peak of Corcovado to see the sunset. The last funicular train has already left, but the new road just completed now allows cars to motor almost to the very top. It is a gorgeous drive, first through the city, then through canyons of tropical trees,

winding, twisting this way and that, vista upon vista, the city always receding. Higher and higher we climb, past rainbow-tinted villas and gardens, one moment in the sunlight of the golden setting sun, the next in the shadow of a tropical forest. Now and then we catch a glimpse through

the trees of the cog-wheel railway, whose cars carry fifty people at a time up the mountain to the gigantic cross of the Redeemer.

The curves along the road become smaller and sharper, but our expert driver takes them easily. Cooled by an



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RIO UNDER A FULL MOON

There is no city in the world more enchanting than Rio with its beautiful harbor, islands and mountain ranges, especially as night settles over the scene and points of light appear in the dark valleys and along the avenues until finally the crescent of the bay and all the shore are outlined with a sparkling chain.



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THE SHORE DRIVE, RIO

The Avenida Beira-Mar and its extensions run for eleven miles along the shore of bay and ocean, offering the motorist one superb and richly colored view after another. The Brazilians have preserved and enhanced with affection and skill the wonderful gift of nature in the site of their capital city.



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THE MONROE PALACE

Named in honor of President Monroe of the United States, this edifice is the meeting place of the Brazilian Senate. Many trees and flowerbeds embellish even the business section of Rio. The black and white mosaic sidewalks, laid in various patterns, are a feature of the central part of the city.



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THE BOTANICAL GARDENS, RIO

These magnificent gardens, begun in 1808 by Dom João VI, are a delight to the botanist and a pleasure to any lover of nature. A large collection of orchids; palms and other tropical trees in graceful groups; and many kinds of lilies are but a few of the garden's treasures. In the background towers the granite peak of Corcovado.

evening breeze, we find it an exhilarating drive, for now we have left the heat of the city far below us.

Suddenly we emerge from the tunnel of trees. We hurriedly climb on foot the hundred steps to the very top, so that we shall not miss a moment of the sun's setting. From the parapet we see in detail, rising high above us, the monumental Christus with outstretched arms.

Below and beyond unfolds a magical scene as unreal as a dream and as difficult to describe. Great white fluffy clouds have floated in from the sea, obscuring for the moment any visible trace of the mountains. Silently we wait in the mists, then faintly, as if breaking through a silken veil, Sugar Loaf appears, clear-cut as a cameo, but only for a second, and then fades again into nebulous oblivion.

The declining sun sends out shafts of quivering light, as very slowly the clouds drift by. And now in crystal clearness we can see, far out over the bay, little lonely clouds that drift down and in patchwork fashion linger over town and harbor. Overhead the sky turns intensely blue, while to the west, suffused in rose and gold, loom the great jagged mountains in royal purple.

Many islands, scattered as if by the gods, rise from the bay like violet-colored denizens of the deep, happy to view their

own reflections yet again before the water passes into the oblivion of total blackness.

The twilight here is short, and already the lofty Organ mountains are fading from the horizon and Nictheroy with its lovely beaches can scarcely be seen. Then, like fire-flies darting about, twinkling lights appear, and suddenly the black lagoon and Botafogo Bay are rimmed with sparkling gems. As far as the eye can see, shore drives, parks and avenues, are all glitteringly outlined by a million globes.

The city itself, spreading over an area of seventy miles, is ablaze with lights. Rio has donned for the evening a radiantly beautiful jewelled mantle.

As if we had not seen enough, there for our delight slowly rises above the blue-black horizon an enormous golden moon. Taking its celestial time, it ascends into the sky and turns to gleaming silver, flecking with its silver dust everything it touches. Across the bay it forms a path of glistening precious metal.

From behind us comes a sudden illumination, and turning we see the Christus, towering over a hundred feet above us, brilliantly outlined against a starlit velvet sky. A fine heroic statue, a magnificent beacon to mariners at sea, a symbol of peace to all mankind, it stands a fitting benediction above God's own creation.

Two Declarations

These two declarations, adopted unanimously by the Eighth International Conference of American States, copies in a size suitable for wall display may be obtained, on request, from the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

DECLARATION OF AMERICAN SOLIDARITY

The Eighth International Conference of American States,

CONSIDERING:

That the peoples of America have achieved spiritual unity through the similarity of their republican institutions, their unshakable will for peace, their profound sentiment of humanity and tolerance, and through their absolute adherence to the principles of international law, of the equal sovereignty of States and of individual liberty without religious or racial prejudices;

That on the basis of such principles and will, they seek and defend the peace of the continent and work together in the cause of universal concord;

That respect for the personality, sovereignty, and independence of each American State, constitutes the essence of international order sustained by continental solidarity, which historically has found expression in declarations of various states, or in agreements which were applied, and sustained by new declarations and by treaties in force; and

That the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, held at Buenos Aires, approved on December 21, 1936, the Declaration of the Principles of Inter-American Solidarity and Cooperation, and approved, on December 23, 1936, the Protocol of Nonintervention,

The Governments of the American States

DECLARE:

FIRST. That they reaffirm their continental solidarity and their purpose to collaborate in the maintenance of the principles upon which the said solidarity is based.

SECOND. That faithful to the above-mentioned principles and to their absolute sovereignty, they reaffirm their decision to maintain them and to defend them against all foreign intervention or activity that may threaten them.

THIRD. And in case the peace, security or territorial integrity of any American Republic is thus threatened by acts of any nature that may impair them, they proclaim their common concern and their determination to make effective their solidarity, coordinating their respective sovereign wills by means of the procedure of consultation, established by conventions in force and by declarations of the Inter-American Conferences, using the measures which in each case the circumstances may make advisable. It is understood that the Governments of the American Republics will act independently in their individual capacity, recognizing fully their juridical equality as sovereign states.

Signed at Lima

States on December 24, 1938, represent the outstanding achievements of the Conference. American Union. A comprehensive article on the Conference will appear in the March issue.

FOURTH. That in order to facilitate the consultations established in this and other American peace instruments, the Ministers for Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, when deemed desirable and at the initiative of any one of them, will meet in their several capitals by rotation and without protocolary character. Each government may, under special circumstances or for special reasons, designate a representative as a substitute for its Minister for Foreign Affairs.

FIFTH. This declaration shall be known as the "Declaration of Lima."

DECLARATION OF AMERICAN PRINCIPLES

WHEREAS, The need for keeping alive the fundamental principles of relations among nations was never greater than today; and

Each State is interested in the preservation of world order under law, in peace with justice, and in the social and economic welfare of mankind,

The Governments of the American Republics

RESOLVE:

To proclaim, support and recommend, once again, the following principles, as essential to the achievement of the aforesaid objectives:

1. The intervention of any State in the internal or external affairs of another is inadmissible.
2. All differences of international character should be settled by peaceful means.
3. The use of force as an instrument of national or international policy is proscribed.
4. Relations between States should be governed by the precepts of international law.
5. Respect for and the faithful observance of treaties constitute the indispensable rule for the development of peaceful relations between States, and treaties can only be revised by agreement of the contracting parties.
6. Peaceful collaboration between representatives of the various States and the development of intellectual interchange among their peoples is conducive to an understanding by each of the problems of the other as well as of problems common to all, and makes more readily possible the peaceful adjustment of international controversies.
7. Economic reconstruction contributes to national and international well-being, as well as to peace among nations.
8. International cooperation is a necessary condition to the maintenance of the aforementioned principles.

International Relations in Broadcasting

JAMES ROWLAND ANGELL, Litt. D., LL. D.

President Emeritus, Yale University; Educational Counselor, National Broadcasting Company, Inc.

BROADCASTING introduces a distinctly new element into international relations, one fraught with great possibilities for good and with equal, or even greater, possibilities for evil. It is a subject to which thoughtful and well-disposed people may well give attention. The situation is naturally affected by the linguistic and cultural relations of the sending and receiving countries, respectively. But many important principles are relatively independent of these considerations.

If we in the United States broadcast to Central and South America we must use Spanish or Portuguese in order to be generally understood. Moreover, we must seek as actual broadcaster a cultivated and well-informed person possessed of an impeccable accent and thoroughly versed in the language employed. Furthermore, the broadcast material must be prepared by one familiar with the cultural peculiarities and the momentary economic and political conditions of the countries to which the broadcast is directed. Otherwise, misapprehension and needless offense to listeners is inevitable. Also, the ill-informed broadcaster may under such conditions say, or leave unsaid, things exposing him to ridicule, thus creating an unfavorable attitude in the mind of the listener. All this is fairly obvious.

When it comes to the choice of material to be broadcast, the problems are more difficult. Music is the lingua franca of radio and good music well rendered is welcome practically everywhere. This is

especially true of broadcasts from the United States to Latin America, for both continents are heirs to the great musical heritage of the Occidental world. The newer and less well established musical forms that we know as "jazz" and "swing" probably have much the same type of acceptance that they enjoy here. Certainly the nations to the south of us have done their share in developing more or less indigenous forms of dance and melody.

From present indications it would appear that news items enjoy a very high degree of popularity. For this there are doubtless many reasons, but the fact itself involves us at once in one of the most delicate and important obligations of radio in the international field. To the casual observer it might seem that nothing could be easier than an objective and uncolored transmission of news. But this is far from being true. There must first be selection of items and this circumstance opens a wide field for judgment and even prejudice, inasmuch as not all the news locally of interest at a given center—say New York—can possibly be of interest in Central or South America, and if it were, the limitations of time would make it impossible to present it. Furthermore, by suppression, by accent and tone of voice, by slight distortion of fact, entirely erroneous impressions may be conveyed—impressions which may be provocative of national irritation, or may issue in unwarranted flattery, with subsequent undesirable consequences. In settled times such tenden-

cies may have few serious results, but when international relations become strained, ill-advised comments in the press, and much more, stupid blunders on the radio, may be most mischievous. The international news broadcast unquestionably renders a great service, but it is one which requires unusual discretion if it is to go beyond the mere quotation of markets and reports upon the weather.

In this connection it is interesting to note that short-wave broadcasting originated under circumstances where it was often in effect an exchange of messages between individuals. It is said that it still retains something of this flavor and that there tends to be in it an intimacy of tone and feeling which is much less characteristic of long-wave broadcasting. To the extent to which this is true, it is obviously of peculiar importance that any broadcasts sent from the United States to our southern neighbors should be conceived and executed by those sympathetically in touch with the entire situation. We have here an opportunity to present revealing pictures of our actual life as a people, which may well exercise great influence upon the attitude of foreign listeners.

Certain nationally popular types of radio programs lend themselves but poorly to broadcasting in foreign languages. Thus the dramatic sketch turning on local conditions, or relying on native slang, etc., can rarely be translated successfully, much less be put on the air. Even classical drama is extremely difficult to present effectively in translation. The limitations of idiom, to mention only these, always present grave difficulties. In any case, the foreign language audience interested in our native drama as presented on the radio is probably rather limited.

The field of political propaganda is one which has been exploited far more extensively in other countries than in the



Courtesy of the National Broadcasting Company

THE ADVANCE PROGRAM BOARD OF THE N. B. C. INTERNATIONAL DIVISION

Each program listed is represented by a card showing the character of the program and which of the six language groups it is designed to serve. Three-fourths of the 16,000 programs sent by short-wave during 1938 were arranged especially for foreign audiences in their own languages.

United States. When such propaganda is directed abroad and in the language of the country for which it is intended, it takes on sinister potentialities of the most disturbing kind. This type of thing has reached its climax in the totalitarian States, where the radio has been employed to saturate the minds of the nationals with one side, and only one, of all political issues. The same type of distorted statement is often peddled abroad wherever it is believed that it can be made plausible. When combined with a similar control of the press, the results are altogether terrifying in the breeding of false and destructive attitudes in the public. This practice permits the establishment of national delusions, comparable with those to be found

among the inhabitants of any madhouse. A national paranoia is the inevitable outcome.

So far as concerns policies and principles, we face the most definite cleavage when we consider the situation confronted by a broadcasting system like our own conducted by private citizens and one controlled directly by a government. Under the latter procedure broadcasts to a foreign country become at once an expression of national policy and are so understood. The material in them is justly regarded as reflecting the official attitudes of the country of origin. This circumstance has both advantages and disadvantages. It permits a much more unrestricted use of propaganda, both political and economic; but if blunders are made, it is much more difficult to neutralize the unfavorable effect thus produced. To be sure, many casual listeners to radio programs may fail to sense the difference between the two types of broadcasts; but in the long run they will come to be sharply distinguished and it is much easier and more convincing for a government to disavow offensive broadcasts made by private agencies than those which have gone out under direct government supervision.

One difference between our American broadcasting to Central and South America and that of certain continental nations is found in the fact that, since there are large numbers of their nationals living in these countries, the broadcasts from the mother countries often have a nostalgic tone which is rarely or never to be detected in our own. What effect, if any, this practice may exercise upon the attitude of these nationals toward the country of their adoption it would be difficult to say.

In our own case it is only fair to say that broadcasts to foreign countries have generally avoided subjects likely to be hazardous and statements apt to be objectionable.

Moreover, our Department of State has found most broadcasters genuinely desirous of avoiding any actions likely to compromise good international relations. As a matter of fact, very little material is directed abroad by American stations which would, by any stretch of the imagination, be supposed to have deliberate bearing on governmental policies.

It may appear that the ultra-cautious policy suggested by the preceding comments upon international broadcasting must eventuate in almost complete sterilization of such broadcasts from the United States, at least so far as concerns the really vital issues in the modern world. In a measure this inference is correct; but until far more perfect methods have been devised to offset and correct the possibility of utterly biased and dangerously provocative broadcasts (such as are now at times issuing from the totalitarian states) it will be in the interests of peace and international good-will if we can throw the safeguards of civilized intelligence around unrestrained license for radio programs directed across national borders. That this power should be exercised only by those of benign purpose and broad intelligence is obvious. Otherwise, we may have to record another great achievement of science turned to the destruction of those values which lie at the foundation of civilization—values for whose attainment humanity has struggled and suffered throughout the ages. In the hands of the ruthless and unscrupulous, the cruel and inhuman, even the stupid, irreparable damage may easily be done.

There can be no doubt that the radio has gone far beyond the telegraph in bringing nations and continents into contact. The telegraph must depend upon the newspaper to bring its message to general knowledge. This takes time and the message itself seen in print often appears cold

The Pan American Good Neighbor Forum

An Experiment in Popular Education

JOHAN C. TE VELDE

Research Assistant to the Forum

THE Good Neighbor spirit, involving as it does the idea of inter-American democracy and world peace, to be permanent must be part of the average American's fundamental attitudes. Yet, for one reason or another, the man on the street and even students are not customarily reached by activities fostering the appreciation of contemporary cultures and their interaction. The Pan American Good Neighbor Forum, utilizing widely advocated, although neglected methods of approach, is correcting this lack of understanding.

The idea of adult education for international understanding, as it is realized in the Good Neighbor Forum, is the plan of Dr. Ernst Schwarz, member of the faculty of the Central Y. M. C. A. College of Chicago. President of the Berlin Office of Cultural Relations prior to 1933, prominent in the international student exchange movement, and well acquainted with Latin American life because of his extensive travels, Dr. Schwarz was firmly convinced that international amity results from a widely spread knowledge of world affairs and an appreciation of foreign cultures.

Dr. Schwarz outlined these ideas to President Edward J. Sparling of Central Y. M. C. A. College and in the fall of 1937, because of President Sparling's efforts, the Good Neighbor Forum was organized. The Federal Office of Education under Dr. John W. Studebaker supplied funds temporarily for a small staff. In July, 1938, the Adult Education Program, under the supervision of the Chicago Board of Edu-

cation, undertook full financial responsibility and increased the staff, which has at present twelve members.

The sponsors of the Forum are prominent leaders and scholars. Roberto Brenes-Mesén, Professor of Romance Languages, Northwestern University; Isaac J. Cox, Professor of History, Northwestern University; Paul H. Douglas, Professor of Economics, University of Chicago; R. Charles Lebet, President, Export Advertising Agency, Chicago; Salmon O. Levinson, lawyer; Jeffrey R. Short, Chairman, Board of Directors, Central Y. M. C. A. College; J. Fred Rippey, Professor of American History, University of Chicago; A. Curtis Wilgus, Professor of Hispanic American History, George Washington University; and Quincy Wright, Professor of International Law, University of Chicago.

By popular lectures and programs, by radio, and by the distribution of simple materials, mimeographed and printed, on Latin American countries and inter-American relationships, the Forum makes direct contacts with the people of Chicago.

The lectures are the most important single activity of the Forum. It is the policy of the Forum to arrange for a series of two to five lectures before any single group, in order to give as adequate treatment as possible to a broad subject, to arouse deeper interest, and to establish more intimate ties with the group. While a vast amount of research bolsters the content of the speeches and assures their quality and timeliness, every effort is made to

give a non-technical and non-academic presentation.

During the past three months, series of lectures have been given in sixty Chicago centers, located in the districts largely populated by the foreign born, where the Forum was particularly welcome, in the Y. M. C. A.'s, in Protestant and Catholic churches and Jewish synagogues, and, in cooperation with the Pan American Students' League, in twelve Chicago high schools. The speakers encourage questions and discussion. Thereafter, the Forum office and research staff serve as a clearing house for any information on contemporary developments in the Western hemisphere requested by members of these groups, for whom sources are few or inaccessible. Lectures are always free and are usually given in English; very occasionally in Spanish or Portuguese.

The most colorful activity of the Forum is the organization of popular programs, which through movies, dances, songs, and music give a vivid portrayal of certain aspects of the culture of Latin American countries. Fortunately, the Forum has access to a number of excellent films and receives every cooperation from Latin American artists in Chicago. These programs have elicited an unusual amount of response, appealing as they do to popular imagination.

Recently, the Forum has made more use of the radio, a means whereby in the future more people will be reached. It serves to supplement personal contacts and, through such methods as round table discussions, can be made very effective.

The staff is engaged in continuous research in Latin American problems and inter-American relations, with emphasis placed, because of the development of the Forum, on contemporary trends, so that

pertinent materials may be available to the speakers. A series of booklets, the "Good Neighbor Series," is being published, the first of which, *Latin America: A Popular Bibliography*, has gone to press. The foreword of this monograph was written by Professor J. Fred Rippy, whose advice and cooperation have been of great value to the Forum.

An interesting part of the Forum's activity relates more directly to the people of Latin American countries. Close cooperation exists between the Forum and the Latin American consuls of Chicago, who attend the programs. Two tours, one to Mexico and the other to Cuba, are being organized for next summer. Prospective student tourists will be given a thorough background and their itinerary will be so arranged as to permit the maximum of educational benefit. Direct contacts exist with numerous schools and universities in Latin America, and the Board of Education of Chicago is cooperating in the sending of books and other materials of interest to various Latin American schools and libraries. In the United States, the Forum supplies students of Spanish and Portuguese with names and addresses of Latin American students of English, and a notable correspondence has grown up.

The Good Neighbor Forum regards the promotion of good fellowship among the different races, nationalities, and creeds of the Western hemisphere as particularly important and, under the directorship of Dr. Schwarz, is successfully making the people of Chicago acquainted with these ideals. The accomplishments of the Forum in Chicago have aroused widespread hopes that Good Neighbor Forums may be universally instituted, and plans for their establishment are being made in Washington, D. C., and New York City.

The Buenos Aires Garden Club

MARGARET A. CORBETT

President of the Club

ON A WINTER'S DAY of the year 1921 in the suburb called Villa Devoto, near the busy, Spanish-speaking city of Buenos Aires, the capital of the Argentine Republic, a few American women, no doubt thinking lovingly of their distant homeland, met for the purpose of founding a garden club.

There was little discussion, we are told, as to which of those ladies should be president, Mrs. Ackley being unanimously acclaimed.

The first office holders were: President, Mrs. Ackley; vice president, Mrs. Boley; secretary and treasurer, Mrs. de Tonnay; and librarian, Mrs. Lee. The three remaining ladies became the first members, and thus, on August 3, seventeen years

ago, was founded what today is known as the Buenos Aires Garden Club, a firmly established entity, with a full membership, a long waiting list, and five flourishing affiliated branches.

Seven, we are told, is "the perfect number," and if that is so, the club came into being under excellent auspices.

Its first president was both efficient and energetic, and in a very short space of time regular meetings, flower meetings, and shows—small at first, but steadily gaining in importance—found their place in the life of the American and British communities.

There had long been, in this hospitable and fertile land, pleasant gardens and



Photographs by the author

THE COLONIAL HOUSE OF AN ARGENTINE ESTANCIA

Two sides of the sheet of ornamental water are planted with trees whose leaves take on various rich tints in autumn.



THE PATIO OF THE HOUSE, DATING FROM JESUIT TIMES

The many different plants and vines show the interest and care of garden-loving owners.

garden lovers amongst the Anglo-Saxon residents, who worked in their gardens; there had also been flower shows in Belgrano and Hurlingham, other suburbs where foreigners had settled in considerable numbers, but there was no organized society for the interchange of gardening knowledge, where the problems so frequent in the life of the amateur could be discussed, and the experience and advice of the more advanced gardeners pooled, as it were, for the common weal, until these American women, with their genius for clubs, stepped in and filled the want.

A more active interest in the new varieties of flowers was now evident; papers on the care of plants, sowing of seeds, soil preparation, and on the ever-present problem of how to exterminate garden pests, were prepared by members, and experts were sought out amongst the professional gardeners and invited to give lectures.

After a short time the need of rules was naturally felt, and statutes were drawn up to meet the case and assure the smooth running of the Club. It was decided that the members should meet in each others' houses to discuss horticultural matters. The hostess for the afternoon entertained the other members to tea.

The years passed with different office holders, more members, and larger activities. Bigger shows were held, first in an hotel, then in a still larger way in a hall, and then, in 1930, the wish to hold a really important centrally located show in which all amateurs could compete, began to manifest itself.

The world depression had already hit Buenos Aires in earnest, and things were in a very critical state. Some time passed after the idea had first been mooted before it was decided that the holding of a sufficiently big show might be an important



FOUR POOLS GIVE AN OPPORTUNITY FOR THE CULTIVATION OF MANY VARIETIES OF WATERLILIES

charitable event. It was Lady Robertson, the charming American wife of the first British ambassador to Argentina, who suggested that such an effort should be made, and the proceeds given to help alleviate the unemployment which was proving such a distressing problem to the British and American communities.

Came 1932. The membership of the Buenos Aires Garden Club had reached the 35 mark which was the fixed limit of its roll, and although there were a few members of other nationalities, there were now as many British as Americans, and all were only too glad to try and help fellow countrymen in distress by any means in their power. Under the existing circumstances it was no mean undertaking to embark upon and, lest the financial burden prove too heavy, some gallant

friends were willing to back the venture privately, if need be, rather than see the effort fail. Actually the adventure prospered. A big flower show committee was formed. It included many enthusiastic amateurs outside the club, especially women living in the suburbs of Belgrano and Hurlingham, who already had some experience of flower shows. Many and long were the deliberations of the committee, and many their difficulties. The problem of prizes was naturally one of them, and in this time of stress and money shortage it was felt that no undue expenditure should be undertaken. Hurlingham generously offered its prizes for competition, and all its show equipment was added to that of the Buenos Aires Garden Club, and so, with courage and goodwill, the show was ultimately launched.

It was the first venture of anything approaching its magnitude to be held in the city, in either Argentine or foreign circles.

During the two years which had elapsed between the conception and the realization of this idea of a central flower show, Lady Robertson had left the country, so that it was Lady Macleay, the wife of the actual British ambassador, who on October 24, 1932, a fine, if slightly too warm, day, opened the first big open central show, in Prince George's Hall, with an exceptionally beautiful and erudite speech. The hall, which is of large and pleasant proportions, was thronged to capacity with flower lovers of every class, and all were justly enthusiastic over the beauty of the floral display that had been so carefully staged for them. The amateurs worked immensely hard for that show, but nothing could have been finer than the help and advice they got from a few of the leading professionals. Roses, stocks, irises—in fact, every kind of garden flower imaginable in springtime in Argentina, poured their wealth of beauty before the delighted gaze of the spectators, and on the stage a lovely herbaceous border gave a focal point to the show, and reminded many of those present of charming gardens in their homelands overseas.

Since that day, the Buenos Aires Garden Club has staged an annual open show, known as the Central Flower Show, open to all amateurs, of all nationalities. In time Prince George's Hall proved too small for its requirements, which included tea—flower shows, however lovely, being notoriously tiring entertainments—and so the club has in recent years held its big show on the two topmost floors of the Alvear Palace Hotel, during the latter half of October, one of the loveliest months of the Argentine spring. The last show was thronged to such an extent as to leave

no doubt of the increasing "flower-mindedness" of the Buenos Aires public, from its President downward.

Apart from such public functions, the life of the Buenos Aires Garden Club and its branches, these latter a comparatively recent development, is a very busy one, and follows the routine of most similar organizations. The program committee is responsible for lectures; four open meetings for the club and its branches with, whenever possible, practical demonstrations of pruning, sowing, etc., are held during the winter; a regular fortnightly meeting is held all through the working



EXPOSICION CENTRAL DE FLORES

ALVEAR PALACE HOTEL

MIERCOLES

Y

JUEVES

Las ganancias serán para
fines de Beneficencia

AVENIDA
ALVEAR
1891

ENTRADA

\$1.00

27 de Octubre

Desde 16 a 21 horas

28 de Octubre

Desde 11 horas

TE EN EL FOYER DEL HOTEL.

A GARDEN-SHOW POSTER

The last show of the Buenos Aires Garden Club occupied a terrace of the Alvear Palace Hotel. An unusual exhibit was an outdoor swimming pool in a garden setting.

year; visits are paid to gardens whenever there is something of special interest to be seen; "talks" and papers on special subjects are prepared by members, and there is a calendar for the month for the guidance of the less experienced. All these very important matters are planned by the program committee, and branch flower meetings and local branch shows fill the year with steady interest. The club rests from its activities only during the first and hottest months of the year, namely, January, February, and March, work being resumed after the children have gone back to school and everyone has returned from seaside or country holidays.

In the United States and in England a garden club or a horticultural society is often a national institution; here in the Argentine Republic the Buenos Aires Garden Club and its branches represent the foreign amateur gardeners, almost entirely American and British, as the official language of the club is English. The membership is carefully controlled and is purposely limited to 40 active members in the mother club, and to 25 in each of the branches. There are, of course honorary and associate members, and recently, country members have been added to the roll. The regular meetings are held today, as of yore, in the members' houses, the open meetings in a big salon or hall specially reserved for the purpose. In a country where taxes come into being with astounding rapidity and are ever on the upward trend, the club does not wish to be hampered by any costly property, such as a fixed domicile would be, and is thus more able to stage a good annual flower show and use the general funds at its disposal for its own development. An appreciable sum is given to the British and American charties from the annual big flower show, which is now an event of some importance.



Within the last three years an Argentine Society of Horticulture has been formed, which in time should assume large proportions, and which has both amateurs and professionals on its roll. The Buenos Aires Garden Club was able to be of considerable help to the new society in its initial stages and the club's rules formed the basis of the society's statutes. There must naturally be an increasing difference between the fields of action of the two entities, the one remaining an intimate and essentially social organization, and the other a national institution with a greater scope and a wider responsibility towards a public steadily increasing in "flower-mindedness." But while the Sociedad Argentina de Horticultura pursues its wider and more important vocation, the Buenos Aires Garden Club has its quiet, unostentatious mission to fulfill. In the future, as in the past, it must stand for the spreading of the love of what might be described as "the garden flowers" as against the more showy and lucrative varieties indispensable to the florists; for the personal touch in gardening, and for the adventurous spirit which will try out



THE LARGEST LILY POOL

A background of trees, shrubs and flowering plants gives especial charm to this lovely spot. The pool is fed by an iris-bordered runlet.

new and difficult varieties of flowers, even although repeated failure and disappointment be incurred before ultimate success be attained. This is a matter too costly for most professionals, as floriculture is regarded by the majority of them today.

The customs duties and the many restrictions which are put upon the introduction of plants and seeds into the country tend to circumscribe very greatly the activities of the professional horticulturalist, as he will only grow what he is certain to be able to market, so much so, that even in color there is the tendency to grow quantities of pure white flowers to the exclusion of many lovely colored varieties. The florist has great regard to three stages in human life, namely, marriage, birth and death; he can count upon the attendant ceremonies to bring grist to his mill, and there are only very few houses which can afford to, or which will, "take a chance." That is where the amateur steps in and breaks the monotony—for there is monotony even in perfection and beauty.

With what a wealth of loving care the keen members of the Buenos Aires Garden Club tend those novelties which they have

brought from overseas, at a cost often incommensurate with the value of the plant, because its form or color satisfies them. Each plant thus established represents a step forward in knowledge, an attempt to get out of the rut so easy to slip into, if one is content to grow only the same flowers that bloom in every garden. In gardening, as in the sterner pursuits of life, nothing is attained if no risks are taken.

Some members of the Club are always travelling back and forth between England or the United States and Argentina and return full of the glories they have seen in the wonderful gardens so generously thrown open to the public in the cause of charity. These serve as sources of inspiration and instruction to the ardent and knowledgeable amateur, and from the big and famous flower shows they bring back to those who are unable to travel new ideas, new ambitions, and increased enjoyment.

Forty years ago flower shops were practically unknown in the city of Buenos Aires, which today literally teems with them. Not only the visitor, but even the local inhabitants of the capital are amazed

at the quantity of flower shops, besides flower-stands at street corners, and at the enormous improvement in the quality and the variety of flowers to be purchased, an improvement especially evident in the last five or six years. And when the amateur notes the change for the better in the types of flowers seen on the streets of this city, he or she feels, and rightly so, that had it not been for the amateur such a wealth of beauty would never have been put before the town dweller.

The amateur is the "power behind the throne", as it were, and educates the public to an extent that it would be hard to overestimate. It is the amateur who demands novelty in flowers and plants, and brushes aside all the difficulties and obstacles so plentifully strewn across his path. No one is more enthusiastic over the results obtained by the big growers than the amateur, and his praise is untainted by rivalry, and untarnished by jealousy. Envy of the brains and skill which lie behind the great horticultural successes

he may feel, but his appreciation of the achievement is generous and spontaneous.

And so should it ever be with the amateur. He should try in all things to uphold the spirit of fair play, untinged by petty spite, and be animated always by feelings of friendly emulation, keen in competition, generous in defeat, always ready to "try again," and honest in his praise of the better man—a good sport in the best Anglo-Saxon acceptance of the term, and a power for good always and everywhere.

Let us hope that the members of the Buenos Aires Garden Club will always try to keep that ideal before them, and carry on a tradition which they have inherited from those enterprising ladies of seventeen years ago, and be true to the aim of the club as set forth in article No. 4 of its little book of rules, i. e.:

"The object of the club shall be to promote interest in gardening and plant culture and to supply necessary and helpful information relative to conditions in the Argentine Republic."



Hostos in the Pan American Union

L. S. ROWE, Ph. D., LL. D.

Director General of the Pan American Union

ON receiving the bust that the Hostos Centenary Commission in Puerto Rico has graciously offered the Pan American Union, I have the honor of expressing the warm thanks of this institution for the Commission's generous and significant gift.

It is highly appropriate that Eugenio María de Hostos should occupy a place of honor in this edifice, which is consecrated to peace and international cooperation. The illustrious Puerto Rican thinker foresaw with prophetic vision, years before his contemporaries, the high mission that the nations of America were called upon to fulfill. The fundamental principles formulated in his writing are milestones that will always serve as a guide to the countries of this hemisphere; his personality will forever be an inspiration to youth. In several American countries he trained large groups of young people who gave him the honorable title of Master; those of the present day who read his books and study his life also venerate him as a guide.

He sowed the seed of ideas and preached by his example; for this reason he is considered one of the most eminent contributors to the civilization of the Americas. A man endowed with great serenity of spirit, with a profound critical sense, with charm and persuasiveness, he could clothe even the driest topics with the beauty of expression.

A believer in scientific and constructive education, he was nevertheless not a positivist in the strict sense of the word; his

was a flexible and eclectic mind that utilized the best in every school.

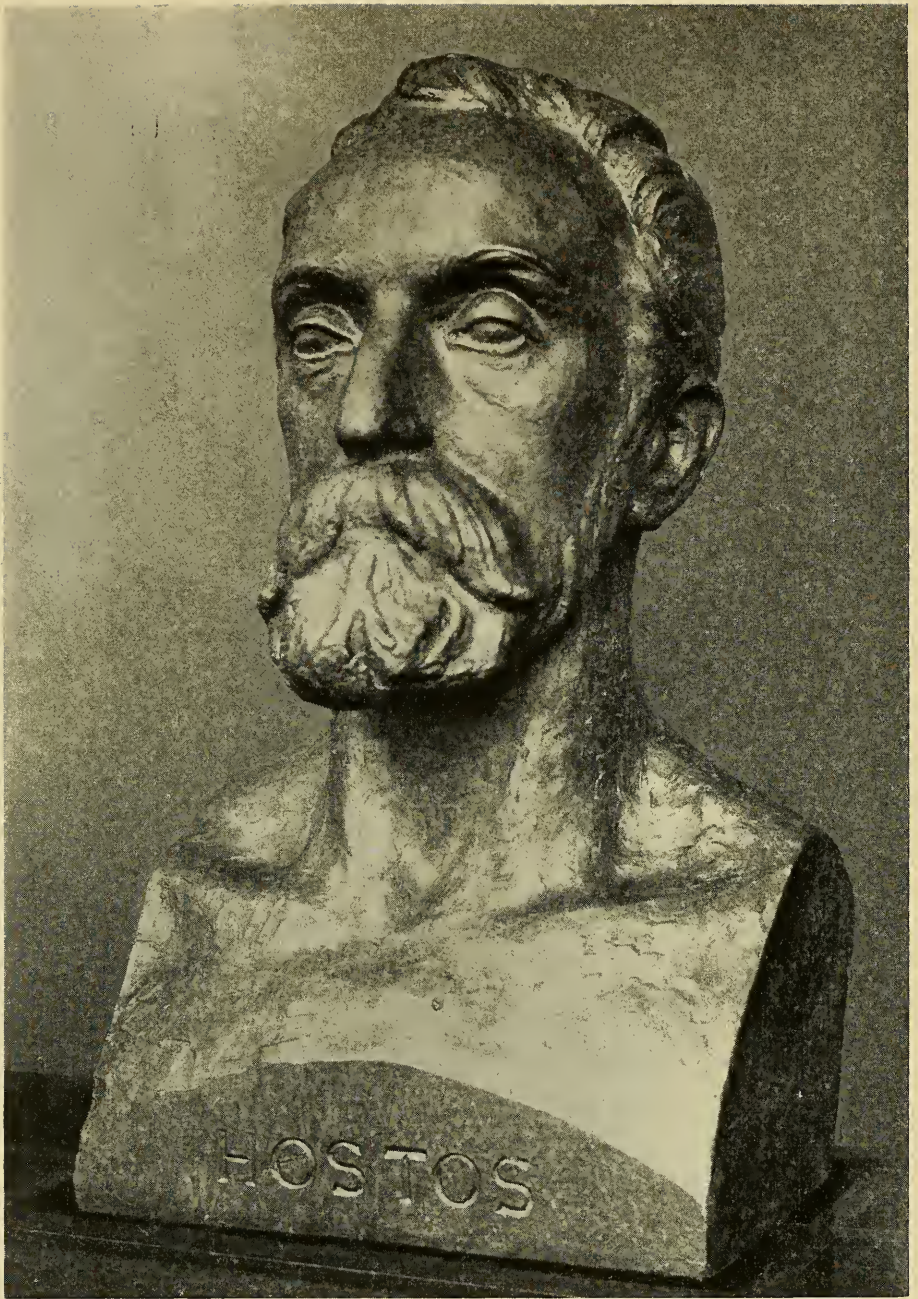
He was in advance of his time in various fields of knowledge and in many educational practices. It should not be forgotten that he was an ardent champion of the higher education of women; in Chile this fact is clearly remembered, and some of the first women graduates of the university dedicated their theses to Hostos' memory.

His theories of education fill several volumes. He introduced and spread the idea of a gradual and integral education; he was opposed to crowded courses of study and insisted that they should be replaced by a more orderly arrangement of subjects.

As a professor of law he had his own ideas on constitutional and international subjects. As a legislator he left proof of his ability in most of the education laws of the Dominican Republic.

He travelled in Europe and visited almost all the countries of America. Everywhere he performed some useful service, at the same time studying the problems of the time with extraordinary ability and profound penetration.

In making the Pan American Union a gift of this magnificent bust of Eugenio María de Hostos, the Centenary Commission of Puerto Rico is aiding in the task of forming a gallery of American intellectuals in this institution. Hostos will take his place beside Andrés Bello, Horace Mann, Domingo Faustino Sarmiento, Enrique José Varona, Ricardo Palma,



HOSTOS

Bust presented to the Pan American Union on January 11, 1939, by Adolfo de Hostos, a grandson of the famous Puerto Rican, on behalf of the Hostos Centenary Commission of Puerto Rico.

Victorino Lastarria and many other illustrious sons of this continent, who shed luster on this house of the Americas.

It is significant that one of the first resolutions passed at the Lima Conference was a tribute to Hostos, the centenary of

whose birth is being commemorated throughout the western world. On receiving the bust, the Pan American Union desires to pay tribute not only to a great citizen of the Americas but also to a great benefactor of humanity.

Eugenio María de Hostos and his Ideas of Social Morality

PEDRO DE ALBA

Assistant Director, Pan American Union

The Man

AN evocation of the memory of Eugenio María de Hostos obliges us to measure our words and order our thoughts.

Having before us a man whose life was notable for its decorum, dignity and composure, we are forbidden oratorical periods or idle digressions. He was an enemy of academic pose and of conventional rhetoric. Of those who lavished praise upon him he asked performance; those who applauded him he asked to listen in silence.

Biographers do not give us a clear idea of his physical appearance, but we can imagine his personality from the scintillation of his ideas and the spotlessness of his life.

Eugenio María de Hostos seems to us more like a moral code than a physical being. Persons who knew him in his youth speak of him as a man who before he was thirty years old seemed to be sixty; this was when he was a student in Spain, a period of great storm and stress in national affairs. Hostos' stay in the mother country was decisive in his apostle-

ship. He is associated in our imagination with Unamuno; Hostos, like the rector of the University of Salamanca, passed part of his life in Bilbao before he went to Madrid. The strongest elements of the Spanish race, the Basque and the Castilian, infused in both men the will to resist and rebel that never left them in all their earthly peregrinations.

The journey to Spain has been for some of our heroes of thought and action the Road to Damascus. Spain acts as a stimulus and reagent in the life of the Spanish American. The social environment of Spanish America cannot be thoroughly understood or interpreted if it is not examined in the light of Spanish history. In Spain Hostos, a son of Puerto Rico, was a soldier in the forefront of the war of ideas; with brain and brawn he fought for the Republic of Castelar and Pi y Margall, but always with the fortune of his own Antilles in view.

He criticized conditions strongly, laying about him with lusty blows; he pointed

Address delivered before the Washington Chapter of the Instituto de las Españas, Pan American Union, January 11, 1939.

out the defects in the Spanish colonial administration, politics, educational system, and distribution of honors and money.

When Hostos was thus fighting Spain, he was Spanish to the core. He reminds us how often Spanish Americans in the Peninsula find fault with everything in their surroundings, but as soon as they go away are overtaken by nostalgia, for they find that for them the Spanish environment is an intellectual tonic more bracing than any found elsewhere in the world.

It is surprising how many points of similarity there are between Hostos' time and our own. We have known in the Central University at Madrid Spanish American students of great ability, who left the classes of the law school because they considered that the professors were a hindrance to their studies and had no culture. This was just what Hostos did in the 1860's, when in desperation at antiquated methods and ineffective and unscientific teaching he stopped attending classes to become his own teacher.

In Spain the most important lessons are those taught by the people themselves through their daily life and never-ending struggle. Hostos formulated and maintained a comprehensive theory. Against bad government, privileged classes, decayed intellectuals, behind-the-times professors, he fought in Spain with proofs and documents taken from Spanish thinkers; but he was faithful to the Spanish culture represented by such men as Padre Vitoria, Baltasar Gracián, Miguel de Cervantes, Melchor de Jovellanos. He defended the glories of Spain against its worst enemies, which were the royal family and the nobility, the military caste, and corrupt administration.

With even the clearest reason and argument he failed, however, to convince Spain that it should grant a fitting autonomy to the Antilles, where the inhabi-

tants lived under the horrors of martial law and the abuses of an irresponsible bureaucracy.

He returned to America to begin a crusade for the freedom and federation of the Antilles, which he considered an indissoluble whole, a geographic and cultural unity. To this task he dedicated his life, and went from one country to another preaching his crusade.

Hostos is one of the teachers who practically circumnavigated the continent. There is hardly a republic in which he did not pitch his tent and teach his lesson: Peru, Colombia, Argentina, Venezuela, Brazil, the United States, each was his abiding place for a time. With three nations he was as closely associated as with his beloved Puerto Rico, the island of his birth; these were Cuba, Chile and the Dominican Republic.

He had Cuban forebears, and his wife came of a prominent family of Habana patriots. These ties he ennobled through his unflagging campaign in behalf of Cuban independence, a campaign that he carried on with great intelligence and supreme unselfishness.

In Chile he continued the work of Andrés Bello and Domingo Faustino Sarmiento. A noble and undying lesson has been bequeathed to us by those standard-bearers of liberal ideals in America, who earned their bread as journalists and teachers. Thus they have become teachers of all Spanish America, with the double prestige of talent and toil.

Hostos never accepted gratuitous support or secret favors; poverty was for him a Roman virtue, as in Bossuet's maxim. He took pride in rendering services many times the value of his stipend.

In Santiago, Chile, he was the principal of the Amunátegui Lyceum, an editorial writer on the daily papers, the president of the Atheneum and of scientific and educa-

tional congresses, and a professor in the university.

Hostos' real² calling was teaching. His was the apothegm that the only revolution that had not taken place in America was the educational revolution.

It was in Santo Domingo that he undertook the task of reforming the educational system from top to bottom. He founded the normal school, secured the passage of laws on education, trained teachers, edited textbooks, drew up courses of study; he reached the position of Director General of Education. It was at this epoch of his life that he wrote most of the books that he bequeathed to posterity.

His work may be divided into numerous sections: Literature, science, politics, constitutional law, educational science, methods of teaching, sociology, ethics,—fifty volumes in all.

On this night of the centenary of his birth we shall make a brief analysis of the *Moral Social* (*Social Morality*),² a book published at the urging of his students in Santo Domingo and endowed with perpetual youth. It reveals the dominant trend of his ideas and expounds his doctrines, still timely today.

Progress and moral values

It was fifty years ago that Eugenio María de Hostos warned his contemporaries. He foresaw the dangers involved in mechanical progress if it were not closely followed by spiritual and intellectual improvement.

He called attention to the increasing discrepancies that he observed between progress and morality, and made it plain that the civilization at the end of the 19th century, of which the men of that time were so proud, carried within itself irritating contradictions and the seeds of barbarism. That lack of accord between machine civ-

ilization and the world of moral values, which the distinguished philosopher Henri Bergson discussed not long ago in illuminating pages, was denounced by Hostos in the prologue to his *Moral Social*, written in 1888.

Hostos was a classic thinker and a master of the best humanism. Ideas of apparent harmony and profound similarity guided his meditations; as a teacher he aspired to train the whole man. The incompatibility between the material and the spiritual; the contradictions between material power and the ethical sense; the antinomies between preaching and practice, he condemned in pages that are still fresh and applicable today.

The "complete man", he said, must be the fundamental unit of noble peoples and strong nations.

Impressed by the panorama of his times he wrote these notable words: "Half men, half nations, partly civilized, partly savage, we men and nations of this flourishing age constitute societies outwardly as brilliant as the most powerful nations of ancient history and inwardly as benighted. Under the skin of every society barbarism throbs. Thus, because of this contrast between material progress and moral development, Europe and America have again witnessed the shame of wars of conquest, the shamelessness of the supremacy of might over right, the humiliation of the idolatry of crime enthroned and omnipotent for twenty long years in the heart of Europe, and the indecency of the deification of brute force in the brain of the thinking continent. It is because of the immorality of our civilization that it has agreed to the renewal of the infamous and cowardly persecutions of the Middle Ages. . . ."

If the Master of Mayagüez were living today he would have to make his jeremiad even more emphatic to scourge those who poison the air of our times and exalt over

² This book has not been translated into English.—EDITOR.

every moral standard of humanity their caprices, their hates, and their low appetites.

Perhaps he would feel bitter when he saw that all his preaching had been in vain, but as he was not a man who faltered in his task he would begin it anew. Hostos was not a mere rhetorician or an academic moralist, but a man of action, who fought for civilization. His essentially constructive mind set him apart from all theoretical doctrines, from all arbitrary empiricism. He was never satisfied merely with good intentions; ideas had to be set in motion, moral precepts had to be vitalized. Neither dogmatic nor magisterial, he maintained that morality must be founded on logical bases, on the principles of human sympathy, on the demands of social service.

Hostos had acquired a sound education and was familiar with the best in philosophical thought; at the same time he had creative intuition and the heroic strength of those who are endowed with artistic temperament and apostolic fervor. By his life and work he showed that aesthetic education and philosophic feeling determine personality, and that moral disciplines are the basis of character.

A glowing and attractive personality, a firm and resolute character, belonged to this spirited champion; his artistic taste and his philosophic temperament were shown in his studies of *Hamlet*, his ethical views and his professorial temperament in the pages of his *Moral Social*. These qualities were evident in his exemplary life. He could maintain his moral principles with authority because his theories were reinforced by his acts. When his students urged him to publish his lessons in ethics, he replied: "Ethics should be imprinted not in books but in deeds. Whoever leads an evil life, preaches evil, and whoever thinks evil and speaks evil leads an evil life." Since the students insisted,

the professor agreed to publication on condition that the section chosen should be "that part of the book referring to the duties of society." He deliberately abstained from all dogmatism to take his stand in the realms of learning, natural law and human relations.

Concepts of gratitude in the "Moral Social"

Eugenio María de Hostos is a brilliant proof that in Spanish America there can be orderly studies and methodical and sustained efforts. Many of our thinkers are excitable and volcanic; a passion for the fray makes them appear inconsistent and contradictory; the pressing demands of life do not permit them to put their ideas in order.

Hostos gives us an example of firm purpose and well-ordered industry. When he wrote his lessons in social morality, he emphasized scholarly and philosophical principles. Logical sequence, relationship between topics, correlation of the premises, a series of reasons supporting each other, raised the harmonious edifice that his intellect had devised. On this well-planned foundation his work was divided into two ample parts, containing invaluable material on the problems of the moral code and their solution. The first part is entitled *Relations and Duties*, and the second *Morality and the Activities of Life*. We shall comment on a few of the chapters that are the most interesting because of the author's originality in presenting his theme.

The two phases of Hostos' work that have long impressed us most, the aesthetic and the scholarly, we find reflected in many pages of the *Moral Social*. The general headings on social relations are as follows: Relation of Necessity, Relation of Gratitude, Relation of Utility, Relation of Law, Relation of Duty. We shall mention first the Relation of Gratitude because to us it is the most impressive title.

Hostos' discussions of social gratitude disclose his delicate sensibility and his profound human sympathy. These sentences ring with a noble conviction: "A little reflection will show us that after our own necessities it is gratitude that binds us most closely to other men.

"Indeed, as members of a family we are so closely bound to it by gratitude that we recognize its effects from the cradle to the grave. If we are born we owe it to the family; if we grow up, it is through the protection of the family; if we are educated, it is the work of the family; when we are with the family we work for it; away from it we long for it; we are happy in the family and for its sake; if we are unfortunate, we regret it for the sake of the family; ill, we fear death for its sake, and dying we long for it."

Hostos considers the family the cornerstone of society, and in his discussion discloses the tenderness and unselfishness of his heart. He does not speak in terms of mere convenience, although he recognizes that relations of necessity come first; he leaves a place for the imponderables of sentiment.

This unselfishness and sentiment show that the moralist had an aesthetic temperament. It should not be believed that he confines the stimulus of gratitude only to the family, for it radiates therefrom in ever wider circles to the city, the province, the nation, humanity and nature. At the end of the chapter on gratitude Hostos writes: "As this relation of gratitude is extended to all men the power of human dignity becomes increasingly vigorous, so that the man who most deeply feels the gratitude that we owe to humanity for its unceasing benefits is the most human."

An optimistic declaration this, conceiving life as something good, considering as one of the prized things of life intercourse with one's fellow-beings, recognizing one's identification with the destiny of all hu-

manity. The contemplation of natural beauty awakes in Hostos a sense of well-being in which his aesthetic emotions are nobly shown. . . .

Hostos had reason for complaint concerning his era and his contemporaries, but he rose above trifles and grudges to exalt his faith. Hostos' ideas were far removed from the Voltairian attitude of some present-day writers. His doctrine is the antithesis of the dictum of the well-known French novelist and poet, Henri de Montherlant, who takes an attitude of resigned negativism when he writes: "Men never do us all the evil that they could." ("Les hommes ne nous font jamais tout le mal qu'ils pourraient.")

Hostos, on the other hand, thought of man as representing a positive moral value and as being capable of gratitude for all the good things that life gives him.

The social function of the useful as opposed to the fever of selfish utilitarianism

If when he speaks of gratitude Hostos shows his aesthetic sensibility, when he discusses ideas of utility he displays his powers as a sociologist, sentimental only in so far as sentiment is not an antisocial menace; he believes that generous and romantic impulses should be at the service of a well-balanced mind and a firm will.

He never postulated absolute renunciation nor absurd quietism, for he was well aware that the life of society is a struggle and that therefore it must be decided how best to be useful in that conflict for the general good.

The concepts of social utility upheld by the pragmatic philosophers and educators, James, Dewey and Henderson, had previously been expounded by Hostos in lessons to his classes in the normal school at Santo Domingo.

His logical mind insisted most strongly on defining the term *utility*. It was for this

reason that he explained his ideas on this subject in the first section: "If we consider useful only that which serves our use and redounds exclusively to our individual good, no duty would arise from utility except that of sacrificing everything to our individual good. But since utility is a natural property of physical and moral objects to serve the purposes of everyone, and since there is no individual purpose that can be fulfilled outside of society, it is clear that for a thing to be useful to us it is necessary that it should be naturally conducive to the achievement of our social purposes."

Later he added: "To the common herd everything is useful from which selfishness derives some benefit; utility, therefore, is the property that things have of being utilized by man. It is easy to comprehend that, if what is beneficial is used for individual selfishness, the property of utility will be converted not into a source of duties, but into an inexhaustible spring of selfish instincts. But this does not arise from the fact that the concept of utility is inexact, or that the useful is bad in itself; it arises from the fact that the common concept of utility is incomplete and that the idea of the useful is exclusive." ". . . according to economics, the most useful things are those that begin by benefiting society, in order thereby to benefit the individual; thus there is no true utility except in the intelligent combination of public interests with private, of general interests with individual ones. . . ."

If we consider carefully Hostos' exposition concerning utility and the useful we discover that Hostos had a deep-rooted conviction that the interest of society should have preference over the special interest of the individual. The idea that education should be useful to society, which American educators emphasize today, and the theories on the social functions of wealth found in books by econo-

mists and sociologists of various nationalities were analyzed in unequivocal and conclusive terms by Eugenio María de Hostos.

In vulgar minds the idea of utility carries with it such a desire for lucre and for rising profits that it is likely to constitute a danger to social justice and collective welfare.

Right-minded men believe that the idea of utility should be subordinated to moral precepts, to the principle that the citizen best trained for the life of society is he who can best serve others. Production, technical skill, wealth should derive from an equitable distribution of useful things so that public and private interests are intelligently combined, as Hostos believed they should be.

These ideas are not subversive, for in all ages and in all countries they have been maintained by men of different shades of philosophical belief, by priests of various religions. If we go back in history, we shall find them held by the Fathers of the Church; for example, St. Augustine said that the rich should be considered the administrators of the property of the poor.

Politics, journalism and moral duties

Aristotle's saying that man is a political animal was echoed by Hostos. A politician, a component of the *polis*, the state or city, was an expression of the highest Greek culture, a social being first and foremost. However, the terms *politicians* and *political* have been deprived of their original meaning by being applied only to electoral candidates and contests. This is one of the common limitations that Hostos discussed in speaking of the concept of utility.

In the history of Spanish thought there are essayists of the highest intellectual standing, like Mariana, Saavedra Fajardo and Feyjóo, who consider politics one of the noblest of human activities. Of this clan is Eugenio María de Hostos.

In the second part of his *Moral Social*, which has as its subtitle *Morality and the Activities of Life*, our author considers ethics in relation to the most diverse factors in community life. There are, we find, such chapter headings as these: Morality and the School, Morality and the Philosophic Religions, Morality and History, Morality and Art, Morality and Industry. We will comment briefly upon a few which are especially appropriate today and which are treated in an especially courageous and penetrating manner.

In Hostos' opinion, the practice of politics and of journalism should have the dignity of a priesthood; the bad practitioners of these professions should be treated as antisocial beings and as dangerous corruptors of society. Not only in respect to politics, but also as concerns journalism, Hostos revolts against the false concept that success is its own justification. To him success obtained outside the bounds of social morality, even though it be impressive and showy, is in reality despicable and ephemeral.

When all Europe thought Bismarck a political genius, Hostos attacked him, calling him "perniciously lucky," for he was one of those who see in politics nothing more than the art of employing power against law. If in the realm of international politics Hostos was implacable toward imperialists, in the field of domestic politics he raised his voice against those who trafficked in influence and against the grasping. "Only absolute ignoramuses or consummate hypocrites could have the idea of separating what is by nature inseparable and of taking from the art of balancing power with law the dignity conferred on it by its origin. . . . Politics without morality is unworthy; any game of chance, unworthy as gambling is, is more worthy than politics divorced from morality, because at least the only morality at stake

in the repugnant episodes of a game is that of the gambler and his accomplices, but the immoral politician stakes by his example the public and private morality of his country."

For Hostos, the journalist who works for petty interests or the politician who sells his ideas are antisocial elements. He considers that the two poles of mercenary journalism are power and wealth. "Journalism undertaken because of a thirst for power is a daily, weekly, or fortnightly example of intellectual immorality, continuous in its effects. . . . and of lack of character, which is the worst kind of immorality. Since power, its objective, is subject to constant change, its judgment also becomes changeable. . . . Journalism inspired by desire for gain is also a constant example of immorality of feeling and will; it demoralizes public opinion, because it constantly exalts success and frequently jeers at all generous sentiments; it demoralizes the will of society, which is constantly being urged to further activities to secure physical benefits and to remain inert in the face of the moral evils of society. . . ."

Hostos does, however, recognize the great good that journalism has accomplished by excoriating tyrannies, privilege, judicial malfeasance, and the abuse of capitalism, and also acknowledges its noble efforts to promote free competition and the recognition of real merit.

He urges journalists to be as dignified as if they were tribunes of the people and to write as conscientiously as if they were addressing not only their contemporaries but also posterity. He says that since journalism is essentially the continuous history of a part of humanity, it necessarily must expose unworthy deeds and wrong-doing, and that they should be exposed as they are, in continual conflict with uprightness and justice, and presented in such a way

as to uphold the moral order as the goal of human dignity.

To Hostos democratic ideals, with their living expression of freedom of thought, freedom of the press, freedom of worship, and freedom of assembly, were not mere empty words or unattainable ideals. He believed, however, that if these powers were exercised without moral discipline and without envisioning the public good, they might result in evil and that they should, therefore, be subjected to the requirements of individual responsibility and collective justice.

All campaigns for freedom of spoken or written thought should pay honor to the great sacrifices that humanity has made to obtain it. It would be an empty and foolish formula if it were not inspired in the highest principle of public good. Every political idea should be a noble aspiration of humanity; this in the last analysis means effective social justice and not mere words.

The employment of leisure time

Like other men of analytical power and apostolic fervor, Hostos, because of his sympathetic comprehension of the problems of his fellow-men, was prophetic, although he did not set out to be.

The chapter of Hostos' book called *Morality and Time* contains much wise and foresighted comment, surprisingly applicable to the present day. The psychologist, the social reformer, and the teacher can there find the solution of many problems of our own time, the results of the study of a serious and profound student.

More than fifty years ago Hostos foresaw that industrial progress would give rise to many grave and disturbing problems. He remarked that progress proceeds in fitful waves, leaving many millions of men outside its benefits. He considered the pleas-

ures of the intellect and of intellectual health as well as of the satisfaction of material needs. He also believed that work is one of the greatest blessings of the human race and that it must therefore be made attractive to the individual and profitable to the community. . . .

He thought of the people who lack culture, money, means of communication with their fellowmen, healthful recreation to help them raise their moral standards. He lamented the lack of opportunity for the masses in these words: "The theater, which is a good institution and a pastime more educational than any other since it reaches the mind and heart of the people most easily, is nowhere a national institution for the people. It is not for the people because it does not reach them systematically; it is not national because performances are given almost exclusively in great cities, very seldom in small ones and never in the country. . . . Lectures on literary, scientific, religious, political or economic subjects are also a privilege of large centers.

"Concerts for the people, which belie their name because the price of admission is almost never within the reach of the masses, should be a national institution in every country and extend their benefits to the village and rural population."

In answer to these requirements of Hostos the present age could present the radio as a source of popular culture and recreation. So powerful an instrument should be cherished as a treasure of humanity because of its possibilities; every country should promote education by means of broadcasts and free the air from the ineptitudes that now contaminate it.

Hostos would be pleased at the popularization of the motion picture and the radio, for he was tortured by the idea of the misuse of leisure time with all its possibilities of lurking vice. A proper use of free

hours was to him one of the surest indices of culture.

"As long as a civilization does not know how to employ time left over from daily toil, it will not be a true civilization, for it will not be employing rightly its first and most important source of wealth.

"No one, no matter how toilsome his life, but has now and then a moment's idleness in which he may feel overwhelmed with boredom . . . in need of a social solace that he cannot find. . . . Most men have more than enough time to become bored with themselves and with others, to be forced to choose between boredom alone or vice in the company of others."

The great hope for the future of humanity is that as science advances work should be less hard and hours of labor shorter. The conquest of an eight-hour day is followed by the week of forty hours, and perhaps thirty or thirty-five hours. When this comes manual workers should be prepared to make good use of their free time. They should be ready to contradict effectively the charge that their leisure hours are spent in vicious pursuits or mere idleness. One of the divisions of the International Labor Office in Geneva is at present engaged in a campaign in favor of popular libraries, parks, casinos for workmen, evening schools, theaters for the people, country excursions, and community singing.

Even in our days we may look forward to the realization of the Utopian dream of Sir Thomas More that men should devote only six hours a day to labor and that the rest of their time should be used for enriching their minds and cultivating the finest human relations.

Contemporaneous technology can secure production sufficient for the necessities of everyone even with a thirty-hour week.

There are two factors hindering this; one is a desire for undue gain, and the other the hatred and uncertainty fostered by the na-

tions of prey, aggressive, insolent and conquering. They have put other nations on the defensive and required more time to be spent in labor for war industries to meet the constant threats of those who have been "perniciously lucky", in Hostos' phrase, and are skilled in the evil arts of using power against law.

Preoccupation for the destiny of all humanity

Antonio S. Pedreira, Hostos' excellent biographer, calls him "Citizen of America", a title well won by his cultural influence in all parts of our continent, by his long stays in the islands of the Caribbean as well as on the northern and southern continents. It is true that the civilizing apostleship of Hostos comprehended all the nations of the New World, but it did not stop there,—it embraced the intellectual scene of the whole world.

Of a noble line came those American thinkers who had a sense of the universality of culture, and were faithful to the belief that men must be nourished on the milk of human kindness.

The last chapter of the first part of the *Moral Social* is entitled *Duties of Man towards Humanity*. This was a subject on which the master constantly pondered. It appears in the introduction to the book, and in spite of the logical development of his work, Hostos feels himself so much under the necessity of emphasizing this topic that he even interpolates it in his discussion of other themes.

When he speaks of social responsibility and rights, his ideas are of broad scope. Before he came to the chapter cited, he had already said, "Man is above everything a human being . . . whatever his birthplace, his racial tradition, the influence of his family, the character of his nation, the stamp of his civilization, he is indissolubly bound by his nature to every other man, because every other man is,

like him, the same living expression of the same biological and sociological necessities. . . ."

The first sentences of the part we are now discussing have a familiar ring: "Social morality would be not only incomplete, but also limited in its scope and mean in its purpose, if it linked man only with the national society of which he is part. Far from excluding his relation to humanity, social morality should include it to such a degree that the first truth learned and the last truth practiced should be that man is part of humanity, for the natural place of every man is in the bosom of humanity."

This is not a rhetorical or empirical proposition, but a doctrine backed by a whole life of constant struggle for the ideal, a salutary idea and a tower of strength. Hostos relates it in a most admirable manner to the duties of patriotism and to the profoundest and broadest human sentiments.

In an admirable passage, Hostos says: "One of the greatest efforts, or rather series of efforts, that the soul feels obliged to make is that of reconciling our duties as patriots with our duties as men. Therefrom arises the common incapacity of being at once a good son of one's country and a good son of humanity.

"But if it is recalled that the society of nations of which ours is a member is a true family of peoples in which, as in a family of individuals, each member is dependent on the prosperity of others; if this is borne in mind, it will be understood that patriotism is not incompatible with that logical and due subordination of the affection and duties that bind us to our country to the affection and duties that bind us to humanity. We should, therefore, subordinate the latter to the former, consider this subordination a duty, and carefully cultivate our duties of patriotism not towards our own country alone, for the

deeper our patriotism, the more conscientious will be our subordination to the great cause of humanity."

America should be proud of this declaration of principles by a citizen of our continent, a declaration in harmony with the noble apothegm: America for Humanity.

*Hostos, intellectual leader and voice of
America*

Under the title of *Essays* the Institute of Intellectual Cooperation in Paris has published a beautiful translation into French of some of Hostos' work as an example of the best thought of Spanish America. His voice, however, is not that of America alone, but of almost the whole world, for he was the incarnation of what he himself considered the highest goal: "To train a man for the concrete humanity that is his own country and for the abstract country that is humanity."

In various pages of his extensive works, Hostos speaks of the international relations of the family of nations. He is, therefore, honored by Geneva, and in Spanish America many of the greatest heroes and outstanding statesmen have quoted Hostos and his belief in mutual respect and assistance as the foundation of international order, and his abomination of force as an instrument of international policy.

Hostos was a Bolivarian of the truest type, not only because he thought that all America formed one family of nations, but because in his theories of constitutional law, he clearly developed Bolívar's idea on the necessity of supplementing Montesquieu's three classical branches of government with a fourth branch, which should have the responsibility of the electoral function.

Antonio Caso, the illustrious teacher of Mexican youth, once said that only three or four other men of the rank of Hostos had

lived in Spanish America. In such a classification the inclinations and preferences of the speaker are, of course, preponderant.

Hostos had glorious forerunners on our continent. Don Andrés Bello, a master of learning and writing, is universally recognized, but others less well known than Bello offer first-hand material for a history of American culture.

The Ecuadorean Don Francisco Eugenio Espejo was in the van of new ideas. At the end of the 18th century he launched his message to all the continent, suffering persecution because of his nonconformity with the colonial regime and because of his audacity in speaking of the independence of America.

Impressive similarity exists between the ideas of the great man of Central America, José Cecilio del Valle, and of the Antillean Eugenio María de Hostos. Valle championed the unity of the Central American countries and drew up the bases for their federation. Hostos was obsessed with the idea of an Antillean federation: "The Antilles must stand or fall together!" he exclaimed in his desire to found a great Caribbean nation. The idea of an American family of nations is found in Valle's work as often as in Hostos'; furthermore, both were well educated in the scholarly and philosophical studies of their time, and it is difficult indeed to find in Spanish America men of a spirit as constructive as theirs. Don José Cecilio del Valle lived as the colonial period was passing into the era of independence.

Another forerunner of Hostos was a Mexican, Don José María Luis Mora. Whenever Hondurans speak of their compatriot, Don José Cecilio del Valle, they justly call him "The Wise Man." When the Mexicans refer to theirs, they call him

"Doctor Mora." A doctor of theology and of law, he had a place in the vanguard of political, social, and educational reforms.

Dr. Mora's dissertations on political education agree with Hostos' ideas, especially when the former declares that it is urgent to free public instruction from its dogmatic character so that it may be based on experimental and scientific principles.

Espejo and Bello; Valle, "the Wise," and Dr. Mora were precursors of Hostos in Spanish America. Among his contemporaries there may be mentioned three or four Hispanic Americans comparable to him. Some of them had a similar generous capacity for love, sacrifice, and labor. Such were Sarmiento and Martí; Enrique José Varona and José Enrique Rodó. They had different missions and lived lives sometimes parallel and sometimes divergent. All burned with love for America. Martí was marked for martyrdom, but Sarmiento, Varona, and Rodó had the joy of realization.

This enumeration of great continental figures in connection with Hostos is not superfluous, for at this time we must again take stock of our fundamental doctrines and of our representative men. Their ideas, the noble example of their lives, the fruitful reputation of their work should serve to nourish the thought of the men of today and strengthen the faith and the character of those who struggle for a free, educated, and united America.

Hostos, who was endowed with the great gift of assimilating European culture and adding his own thought to make an organic whole, stands before us today as a symbol of everything noble and ideal to be admired in our America, a whole man, a hero of thought and action, the clear, strong, and stimulating voice of America.



Folk Dances in Mexico

THE MEXICAN DANCES of today are derived from two racial stocks, the aboriginal and the Spanish. The first is veiled in mystery, while the second is penetrated by European and Moorish influences; in both the manifestations closely related to native traditions are the most interesting.

The aboriginal records do not help to reconstruct the old dances faithfully, since with the exception of an occasional diagram depicting the evolutions of several couples circling about the drummer as he beats the measure and the representations of some musical instruments in stone carvings, nothing in the archaeological treasures that are otherwise so rich in plastic records is of any value for our purpose.

We are therefore confined to the written records of the monks, the sole historians of a past epoch, and to contemporaneous native dances.

These records show that the dance among the Aztecs and their neighbors was an official institution with a dual religious and military function. The main choreographic expressions of the early Mexican

Indian were hieratic, staged in honor of their deities.

In them hierophants, breathing fragrant clouds of burning incense, danced around the huge statues of the gods. Or they performed war dances to the raucous beating of gigantic drums, and used the sound of shell-horns to kindle the fighting spirit in young recruits.

Distributed throughout the year, dances celebrated all the feasts recorded in the Ceremonial Calendar (which was known as the *Tonalamatl*, or Paper of the Sun), and were the expression of the peasant's hope when planting seeds, his anguish when the rainy season was delayed, or the general rejoicing in the spring or at harvest time.

Paradoxically enough, the most savage and ferocious celebrations are found side by side in that calendar with the most poetic feasts in honor of the flowers, for which the war-like Aztecs showed an overwhelming love and admiration. In fact, flowers, feathers, and emerald-green jade were praised by them as the three most precious things in the world and deemed even more valuable than gold.

From "Mexican Art and Life."

The dances in celebration of the Flower-Goddess (Xochiquetzal) and of Five Flowers (Macuilxochitl), the god of music and therefore of the dance, were the most popular and picturesque festivals of the whole year.

Only a faint shadow of the original splendor of those dances has come down to us. But we can gain some idea of their size and character when we consider the buildings which can be seen today in Yucatan, at Mitla or at Teotihuacán, with their spacious courts for the performance of pageants, and their extensive terraces on which the whole population of the vicinity could be assembled. Such open-air auditoriums far surpass our modern stadiums in size and capacity.

In quality as well as in volume, modern native dances are but a poor vestige of their originals.

Nothing autochthonous was encouraged or even tolerated by the conquerors, who destroyed many things regardless of their aesthetic or ethical value. However, they evidently considered the dance in a slightly different light. In it they sensed a vital instrument for esoteric religious expression and attempted to use it as a part of the Catholic ceremonial. Thus native elements were turned to alien interests. And thus, too, native subjects were impregnated with the Spanish spirit. In place of the exploits of the Knights of the Eagle and the Knights of the Tiger there appeared, with rather grotesque results, the heroic feats of Moorish and Spanish paladins who, under the patronage of the Saints, helped to vanquish the foes of the orthodox faith.

As a result the costumes of the dancers were altered, thereby greatly destroying the visual charm of the dances. What that charm was can now be seen in the work of many of the younger Mexican artists who have attempted to restore the early dances to their original splendor and

put them to a new use in the theatre.

With the change of such material features, other alterations have followed, modifying such fragile and evanescent characteristics of these dances as their measure, rhythm, and mimetic gestures. These, in fact, have almost disappeared and are now preserved because of the faithful interest of a few Mexicans in their country's past and an atavistic force in the performers. Some of the features of present Indian choreographic performances clearly show their origins, as, for example, the dance named *Moors and Christians*, *Matachines* (Merry Andrews), *Los Chinclos*, *Los Sonajeros* (*The Rattles*), *El Gavilán* (*The Hawk*), *Los Antiguos* (*The Old Men*), *Huehuenches* and *Tastoanes*. Of these, the last two are the most elaborate and interesting; it is of interest to note that they are somewhat similar to the Japanese No Dances. *Huehuenches* and *Tastoanes* are the generic names for the actors who appear in the performances. *Tastoanes* which, as a dance, is of greater importance than *Huehuenches*, is an allegorical play having for its *dramatis personae* the Apostle Saint James, the Spanish conquerors and the primitive Lords of Mexico. It tells a disjointed story which is, at times, almost incoherent because of the spontaneous additions made by successive interpreters at various times in its long history. It is danced with pantomimic gestures, stylized in a violent and exalted manner, and keyed to a uniform dancing rhythm followed by a general movement of the dancers in choral masses. In the first episode, the Spaniards are the victors, but in the second and final the Indians not only rally and rout the Iberians, but under the furious spell of an inexorable Nemesis behead the Apostle himself.

The dance of *Los Viejos* (*The Little Old Men*) is touching and melancholy. It is performed by a chorus of old men clad in



Allegro con brio (♩ = 60.)
Ay quepe - ri - to doña So - le - da' ya se la vi - do ya na me la da' No ha visto

p legg.

no - don - da - bla - do no ha visto na - doña blu - da no ha visto na - da pe -

la - da y si lo vi do que se na me da Ay quepe vi do que se na me da

Tie - na su pechi to pri - to. Subaci - quita co - lo - na - da can la lengua to co

fue ra cincas lu vie, roso - leo - da 2. Me se to, can de no - da'

THE JARABE

The *jarabe*, a dance originating in Spain, shows Moorish and gypsy influences. It is danced by a single couple; at the climax the man flings his hat at the feet of the girl, who dances the final steps on its broad brim.



white, who have rosy complexions, silvery wigs and whiskers. Shaking with age and stuttering an almost forgotten song, they walk, beating time with their staffs and with the stumbling of their tired feet. When seen on the white sandy shore of Lake Pátzcuaro under canopies of blossoming foliage, the spectacle is a poem in itself.

In vivid contrast with this dance, which is so well attuned to the serene spirit of the simple fishermen who execute it, are the pugnacious dances of the indomitable Yaqui tribe, which is always on the war-path. The *Pascola* and the *Venado* (Deer), their most remarkable dances, have to do with battle and the chase. Both of them are accompanied by the primitive music of a high-pitched flute and the beating of a diminutive drum, and send terror into the souls of their enemies. In the hunting dance, one of the performers is wrapped in skins. With his head covered by antlers, he crouches or jumps, imitating the deer. The other performers dance around, suggesting various episodes in the hunt and tracing its action from the ambush to the final kill. The beat of the drum leads the general movement and a song as savage as a yell marks the clash of the hunters, while the actual steps of the dance are accompanied by the sound of rattles tied around the dancers' knees and ankles. This dance has a really savage grandeur. Strong, picturesque, and spectacular, it is one of the best preserved of native Mexican dances.

In our view, these are some of the dances that really deserve to be called Mexican and that have survived the current jazz age. Others, like the popular *Jarabe* and its variations, come from Spain, having of course Moorish and even gypsy infiltrations in their various moods. The *Jarabe* is danced by a single couple. The woman, called the *China Poblana*, wears an embroidered blouse, a spangled red skirt, green silk pumps and a scarf, or *rebozo*, wrapped around her shoulders and waist. Her partner is the *Charro*. He is dressed in a leather jacket and trousers, both of which are embroidered with gold or silver, and wears a broad sombrero resplendent as a jewel. Their dance consists of the following figures: The man dances around the girl, simulating courtship, while his steps—a kind of clog—mark the time by their beat on the floor. The girl plays the coquette, first rebuking his advances, then encouraging, and finally accepting them.

When this climax is reached, the man throws his hat at the feet of the girl. She welcomes this challenge by stepping onto the brim of the sombrero and dancing the final steps around its broad edge.

At this point, the tempo of the music is quickened into a full and rapid allegro to emphasize the joy of the lovers. Usually, if the audience is pleased with the performance, it joins the dancers in the final allegro with an outburst of song, applause and yells.

The New Constitution of Bolivia

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ON OCTOBER 28, 1938, two days before the closing of the National Convention of Bolivia (which also functioned as a Constituent Assembly), that body adopted a new Constitution, which was promulgated by President Germán Busch on October 30, and at its final session he and the Vice President gave their oaths of allegiance to the document.

The new Constitution, which replaces that of 1880, as amended in 1888, 1902, 1906, 1910, 1921, and 1931, recognizes the growing social consciousness of the times by giving special attention to economic and social aspects of national life. The main provisions of the Constitution, with the more important changes from its predecessor noted, are summarized below.

In Section I Bolivia is declared to be a free and independent unitarian Republic, with a representative democratic government. While the State recognizes and supports the Catholic Church, the public exercise of other forms of worship is guaranteed, the latter provision being new. Sovereignty is vested in the people, who delegate its exercise to the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Powers; the people govern only through their representatives and the authorities created by law (arts. 1-4).

Section II deals with rights and guarantees, which are somewhat more liberal in the new Constitution. Slavery is forbidden, and to that statement it is added that no kind of servitude may be recognized, and that no one may be forced to work except for a fair wage and with his full consent (art. 5). Free residence and tran-

sit in the country, freedom to work or engage in business, to assemble, to teach, and to be taught, are guaranteed (art. 6). No one may be arrested without due process of law (art. 7); recourse in cases of unjust detention (art. 8) and penalties for public officials who infringe upon the rights of citizens (art. 12) are new. No one may be obliged to testify against himself or against specified near relatives in a criminal action, and the confiscation of property as punishment for political offenses is forbidden (arts. 14, 15). Property rights must be respected, so long as the property fulfills a social function (a new provision); foreign individuals or business enterprises enjoy the same property rights as Bolivians, but are forbidden to claim special privileges or to invoke diplomatic action save where justice has been denied, and may not own or acquire title to land or subsoil properties within 31 miles (50 kilometers) of the national boundaries unless a special law has declared that such ownership satisfies a public need (arts. 17-19).

National and municipal taxes are legal only when levied in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, and while they are to be general in character, the new Constitution adds that due consideration shall be given to the economic status of the taxpayer (arts. 20, 21). Property belonging to the Church and to religious and welfare organizations still enjoys the same guarantees as that belonging to individuals, but henceforth shall be subject to any obligations and limitations that the law may establish (art. 22).

The acts of any one usurping functions

not legally entrusted to him shall be void, and no laws regulating the exercise of principles, guarantees, and rights recognized in the Constitution may in any way alter such principles, guarantees, and rights (arts. 27, 28).

New provisions in this section are that: Roads constructed by private initiative shall be open to public use (art. 26); no one shall be obliged to do anything not required by the Constitution and the laws, or to refrain from anything not prohibited (art. 29); laws cannot be retroactive (art. 31); every civil, military, or ecclesiastical official, before taking office, must declare in detail his property and income (art. 32) (see July 1938 issue of the *BULLETIN*, p. 431); and the rights and guarantees of the Constitution must not be understood as denying others inherent in the sovereignty of the people and the republican form of government (art. 33).

Section III, on the preservation of public order, deals chiefly with the declaration of a "state of siege", roughly equivalent to martial law. The provisions are in the main the same: It is declared by the President for part or all of the country, with the approval of Congress when it meets; emergency financial measures may be taken to meet the cost, although there is no longer a provision permitting the salaries of civil and ecclesiastical authorities to be cut; and the only liberties that may be suspended are those of individuals accused of disturbing public order. Whereas correspondence hitherto could only be held up or retained, now a censorship may be established on correspondence in general (arts. 34-38).

In Section IV, on nationality and citizenship, native Bolivians are stated to be all those born within the Republic, and those born abroad of Bolivian parents, if and when said offspring make their home in Bolivian territory (art. 39). Foreigners

may be naturalized after three years (formerly one year) of residence in Bolivia, by complying with legal requirements (art. 40). A Bolivian woman who marries a foreigner now does not lose her nationality, but a foreign woman married to a Bolivian acquires the nationality of her husband as long as she lives in Bolivia (art. 41).

Citizenship consists in voting for candidates or being elected to public office, and in being eligible for such public office as one is qualified to hold (art. 43). The requirements for citizenship are: To be a Bolivian; to be 21 years old; to know how to read and write; and to be inscribed in the Civic Register (art. 44).

Nationality is lost (art. 42) for two new reasons: Joining enemy forces in time of war, or fighting in a foreign war without permission of the Government. Citizenship is suspended, but no longer lost, for the same reasons as in the earlier Constitution, including naturalization in another country, in which case it may be regained by again residing in Bolivia and being inscribed in the Civic Register (art. 45).

Section V deals with the legislative power in general. This is exercised by the National Congress, consisting of a Chamber of Deputies and a Senate (art. 46), which ordinarily meets in the capital on August 6 of each year for 60 working days—the period may be prolonged to 90—although the President may convoke it in some other city. The Constitution provides for special sessions (art. 47), and specifies other offices which members may hold (art. 49), and specifically forbids the election to either house of civil employees, army officers in active service, and certain churchmen (art. 50).

Legislators are immune from arrest during their term of office (art. 51); they are now forbidden (art. 53) to have any part, directly or indirectly, in the sale or lease of

public property or in public works contracts or concessions, or to obtain concessions or any other personal advantages.

The legislative power shall, among other duties (art. 58): pass laws; levy taxes, which shall be valid for 15 months instead of 18; fix in detail the public expenditures; create new Departments or Provinces; coin money, fix its value, regulate the issue of bank notes, and fix the standard of weights and measures; grant subsidies for or guarantee interest for the construction of railways, canals, highways, and other means of transportation; approve or reject international treaties and agreements; authorize the alienation of any property belonging to the public domain, including national, departmental, municipal, and university, and the purchase of land; approve or disapprove the financial report of public expenditures presented annually by the Government at the first session of each legislature; and appoint members to the Supreme Court.

The two houses meet together as the Congress (Section VI) to open and close each session; verify the election of the President and Vice President, or elect them if no candidate has received an absolute plurality; hear those officials take the oath of office; accept or refuse their resignations; consider laws vetoed by the President; declare war; appoint the members of the National Council of Education, etc.

Section VII (arts. 62-65, inclusive) deals with the Chamber of Deputies. Deputies will be elected directly by the people and hold office four years, half of the members to be elected every two years; the number of deputies is to be fixed by law. To be eligible, candidates must be native Bolivians who have completed their military service, have been inscribed in the Civic Register, and are at least 25 years old. The Chamber of Deputies shall initiate legislation dealing with taxes, public ex-

penditures, the size of the army, and authorization of the President to make loans; it also is empowered to impeach the President, Vice President, Cabinet members, and members of the Supreme Court and of the diplomatic corps.

The Senate is discussed in Section VIII, articles 66-66, inclusive. Each Department of Bolivia is now represented by three Senators, instead of two, who will serve for six years, one-third of the Senate to be elected every two years. Senators must be at least 35 years old, and otherwise fulfill the same requirements as Deputies; the Constitution does not mention how they are to be elected. The Senate passes on the impeachment of government officials by the House, and decides whether the cases shall be presented to the Supreme Court for action; restores nationality and citizenship; considers municipal ordinances, proposes candidates for the position of Comptroller General, and grants cash awards, all new functions; and proposes candidates for the Supreme Court and for the posts of Archbishop and bishops.

Section IX (arts. 70-81, inclusive) deals with the laws and resolutions passed by the Legislature, and contains few changes. Except as otherwise provided in the Constitution, a bill may originate in either house, and must be acted upon by the other within 30 days after it has passed the first; bills not passed in the house of origin may not be reintroduced during that session. Provision is made for passing laws over a Presidential veto. Unless otherwise stated in a law, it shall go into effect from the date of its promulgation. Cabinet members may be summoned to report before either house.

The Executive Power (Section X) is exercised by the President of the Republic, jointly with the members of his Cabinet (art. 82). He and the Vice President are

elected by direct suffrage for four years, and may not succeed themselves (arts. 83, 84). The President and Vice President must fulfill the same requirements as Senators. The following are ineligible for these positions: Cabinet members, unless they had resigned at least six months before election day; members of the army in active service, and of the regular clergy; close relatives of those who a year before the election held the Presidency or Vice-presidency; those holding State contracts or having other financial dealings with the Government (art. 85).

The functions of the President, who may not leave the country without the express permission of Congress (art. 92), are, in the main, those usually exercised by the head of a nation. He shall execute laws; negotiate treaties; appoint diplomatic agents; introduce legislation; call special sessions of Congress; see that municipal resolutions, especially those having to do with revenues and taxes, are not unconstitutional; present an annual message to Congress; exercise right of national patronage in churches and ecclesiastical institutions, property, etc.; recognize or refuse recognition to papal decrees, bulls, and other documents; preserve and defend internal order; grant patent rights and protection, etc. (art. 93). A new provision (art. 95) states that he shall visit all parts of the country at least once during his term of office to study local needs, and shall give an account of his observations to Congress.

Section XI, on Cabinet members, states that their number shall be fixed by law (art. 96). [The Constitution when promulgated was signed by nine Cabinet members, representing ten portfolios, those of Government, Justice, and Publicity; Health and Hygiene; Foreign Affairs, Immigration, and Worship; the Treasury and Statistics; Agriculture, Irrigation, and

Colonization; Public Works and Communications; Mines and Petroleum; Industry and Commerce; Education, Fine Arts, and Indigenous Affairs; and Labor and Social Welfare.]

Cabinet members, who must fulfill the same requirements for office as Deputies (art. 97), are responsible, with the President, for the administration of their respective portfolios and jointly with their colleagues for Cabinet decisions (art. 98).

Section XII, on the internal organization of the country, contains radical changes. The former Constitution, as amended in 1931, provided that the chief official of each Department should be the Prefect, a Presidential appointee. The administrative body was the Departmental Assembly, which elected national Senators, passed local legislation, levied Departmental taxes, issued loans, and was responsible for the local police force, education, and highways. Interdepartmental tariffs and discriminatory measures were forbidden. In the new Constitution the section consists of a single article, 105, which reads: "The political and administrative functions of Departmental government shall be entrusted to prefects, sub-prefects, and mayors, whose functions and requirements for eligibility shall be determined by law."

Section XIII, on the economic and financial organization of Bolivia, is almost entirely new, although Amendment VIII of 1931 introduced a short section entitled "Economic and Social Organization." The opening article (106) enunciates the doctrine that the economic regime should be in harmony with the principles of social justice, ensuring all inhabitants an adequate standard of living. All mineral wealth, public lands and their natural resources, waters, and sources of power are the property of the nation (art. 107). The State is empowered (art. 108)

to regulate by law the exercise of commerce and industry, in the public interest. Petroleum, from either government- or privately-owned property, may be exported only by the Government or a government organization (art. 109). State revenues are divided into national, Departmental, and municipal, and shall be administered by their respective treasurers (art. 111); Departmental, municipal or university funds collected by branches of the national treasury may not be centralized in that treasury.

The budget, adopted by Congress for each fiscal period, may be changed by the Executive only with the approval of the entire Cabinet. The proposed budget shall be presented to Congress by the President at its first session, and must be acted upon immediately (arts. 112, 113).

The public debt is still guaranteed by the Constitution (art. 115), and the floating debt which the Executive contracts during any fiscal year must be canceled in the following budget (art. 116).

Independent or semi-independent offices and establishments must also present to Congress an annual financial statement, with a report from the Comptroller General (art. 118). The provision forbidding Departments and municipalities to establish local tariffs or discriminatory measures was transferred to this section (art. 119), as were the provisions on the office of Comptroller General (art. 120), which previously had a section to itself.

Section XIV, dealing with social matters (arts. 121-130 inclusive) is wholly new. Both labor and capital, as joint factors in production, enjoy the protection of the State. Special legislation will regulate compulsory accident, sickness, unemployment, disability, old age, maternity insurance, and death benefits; the employment of women and minors; minimum wages; hours of labor; vacations with pay; and

other measures for the protection of workers.

The organization of cooperative societies will be encouraged by the State, and health measures, including healthful and low-cost housing, adopted. The right of workers to organize is guaranteed, and collective bargaining and the right to strike are recognized. Participation of employees in company profits will also be determined by law. The State is empowered to mediate in conflicts between employers and employees. The rights and benefits granted by law may not be renounced, and all contracts to the contrary will be null and void. Finally, social welfare activities, to be specified by law, are declared a State function.

Government policy with regard to the family is another innovation, set forth in Section XV. Marriage, the family, and maternity are protected by law, which shall recognize no distinction between offspring, all having the same rights. A primary duty of the Government is to care for the physical, mental, and moral welfare of children, who have a right to a home, education, and care when neglected, ill, or in trouble. This duty shall be entrusted to suitable organizations.

According to Section XVI, the Judicial Power consists of the Supreme Court, district courts, and any other tribunals established by law (art. 135). Judges are specifically declared independent and responsible only to the law, and courts of special privilege are forbidden (arts. 136, 137). Court proceedings may not be secret except in the interest of public morals (art. 138).

The Supreme Court (art. 141) is enlarged from eight to ten members, and retains its former division into two sections. To be a Supreme Court justice or Attorney General, a man must fulfill the requirements for Senators, and in addition have

practiced law with credit for ten years (art. 142). In addition to acting as a court of last appeal, the Supreme Court will, among other functions (art. 143), have jurisdiction in questions arising between municipalities, municipalities and other governments, and between Departments; the constitutionality of legislation; disputes relative to the national patronage of the Government; the legality of elections; and the impeachment of specified officials.

Supreme Court justices are appointed for 10 years, as formerly; district court judges have their terms fixed at 6 years, and others at 4 years (art. 145). The power to prosecute is entrusted to commissions that may be appointed by Congress, to the Attorney General, and to other officials to whom such power is granted by law (art. 146). The Attorney General is appointed by the President from candidates proposed by the Senate instead of by the Chamber of Deputies, as formerly, and will hold office for 10 years; he is also eligible for reappointment (art. 147).

Section XVII of the Constitution, dealing with community organization, formerly called municipal organization, is virtually new. Communities are independent units; if they are capitals of Departments, Provinces, or sections, they will be governed by mayors, who will be advised by Deliberative Councils; other communities will have community agents. Mayors will be appointed by the President of the Republic, and the members of the Deliberative Councils elected by popular suffrage; they will hold office for two years (art. 148). The Deliberative Councils have the duties generally entrusted to municipal councils or boards of aldermen (art. 149), but all licenses and taxes required by municipalities must be approved by the Senate before they are valid (art. 153).

Mayors of Departmental capitals shall supervise those of provincial capitals, who in turn shall supervise cantonal agents (art. 150). The functions of mayors (art. 152) include care and supervision of health, park, recreational, and public welfare services; control of the prices of staple commodities and of public entertainments; the collection, administration, and expenditure of municipal revenues; and the encouragement of popular culture.

Amendment XIV of 1931 introduced into the former Constitution a section containing a single article, entitled "University Organization." The new Constitution has instead a section (XIV) of 11 articles (154-164 inclusive) dealing with culture.

Education is declared (art. 154) the highest function of the government; there will be a single school system; school attendance is compulsory for all children from 7 to 14 years of age; and primary and secondary education in public schools is free. The government shall aid deserving students who lack the means for the higher education for which they show ability (art. 155). Private schools must conform to the same authorities, curricula, and official regulations as public schools, but there is no restriction on religious instruction (art. 156). Schools offering primary, secondary, normal, and special instruction shall be under the supervision of the National Council of Education, an independent organization whose organization and function shall be determined by law.

The public universities are independent (art. 159), that is, they have entire control over their income, may appoint their presidents and administrative and teaching staffs, draw up their regulations and plans of study, accept legacies and gifts, etc.; they are all equal in rank. Only public universities may grant academic degrees (art. 160). Public universities will receive compulsory subsidies from the national

treasury, independent of any departmental, municipal, and private revenue that they may enjoy now or in the future (art. 161).

The artistic, archaeological, and historic wealth of the country, as well as that belonging to religious organizations, is part of the cultural patrimony of the Nation (art. 163), and as such is under government protection and may not be exported. The government shall protect buildings and places declared of historic or artistic value.

Section XIX, which briefly discusses rural dwellers, is another innovation in the 1938 Constitution. The government recognizes and guarantees the legal existence of indigenous communities; indigenous and agrarian legislation shall be passed, with special attention to the characteristics of the different sections of the country. The State shall promote the education of rural dwellers by means of schools for Indians.

The army is discussed in Section XX; its size is to be fixed at each session of Congress. All Bolivians must perform military service, in accordance with the law (art. 165). While the army is especially charged with the maintenance of order at home and security abroad (art. 169), it shall also cooperate in the construction of highways

and other means of communication and in colonization. It is now directly subordinate to the President. No foreigner may enlist in the army without previous authorization of Congress, and only native Bolivians may now hold the positions of Commander in Chief and General Chief of Staff (art. 171).

The final articles of the Constitution (Section XXI) deal with amendments, and are substantially the same as in the earlier document. Provision is now made for amending the Constitution only in part (art. 174), instead of as a whole or in part. First a law must be passed, by a two-thirds vote, declaring the need for an amendment; at the beginning of the next Congress, the proposed amendment must be passed by a two-thirds vote in the house in which the preliminary law originated; it then follows the course of other legislation (art. 174, 175). When it has been duly passed by Congress, the President may not veto it (art. 176). Any amendment relating to the term of office of the President shall take effect only in the following administration (art. 177).

The Constitution closes (art. 180) by declaring null and void any legislation contrary to its provisions.

Inter-American Bibliographical and Library Association

THE second convention of the Inter-American Bibliographical and Library Association will convene in Washington February 23 and 24, 1939 under the presidency of Dr. A. Curtis Wilgus, professor of Hispanic American History, The George Washington University. The program is given below:

THURSDAY MORNING, FEBRUARY 23, 9:30
Pan American Union, Hall of Heroes

GENERAL SUBJECT: BIBLIOGRAPHY

Presiding Officer: Dr. León de Bayle, Minister of Nicaragua to the United States.

Address: Ernest Cushing Richardson, *Bibliography the Basis of International Intellectual Cooperation.*

Address: John F. Normano, *Recent Attempts at an Economic Bibliography on Latin America.*

Address: Lewis Hanke, Harvard University, *Current Bibliographical Activities in Latin America.*

Discussion Leader: C. K. Jones, Chief, Classification Division, Library of Congress.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 23, 2:30
National Archives Auditorium

GENERAL SUBJECT: ARCHIVES

Presiding Officer: Dr. Pedro Martínez Fraga, Ambassador of Cuba

Address: James F. Kenney, Director of Historical Research and Publicity, The Public Archives, Ottawa, Canada, *The Public Records of the Province of Quebec, 1763-1791.*

Address: Silvio Zavala, Editor, *Revista de Historia de América*, Mexico, *Libraries and Archives of Mexico.*

Address: Richard F. Bchrendt, Secretary, Centro de Investigaciones Sociales y Económicas, National University of Panama, *Some Problems of Bibliography and Archives Relating to the Social and Economic History of Panama.*

Discussion Leader: Almon Wright, The National Archives, Washington

DINNER MEETING, FEBRUARY 23, 7:00
The Raleigh Hotel

Presiding Officer: Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, Former President of the Republic of Panama.

Address: Victor Hugo Paltsits, President, Bibliographical Society of America, *Bibliography, the Correct Description of Books.*

Address: Waldo G. Leland, Directing Executive, American Council of Learned Societies, Washington, *Bibliography and Scholarship.*

Presentation of Honorary Life Memberships.

FRIDAY MORNING, FEBRUARY 24, 9:30
The Raleigh Hotel

GENERAL SUBJECT: LIBRARIES

Presiding Officer: Dr. William J. Wilson, Consultant in Medieval Manuscripts, Library of Congress.

Address: Arthur E. Gropp, Librarian, The Tulane University of Louisiana, *Newspaper Collections in the Middle Americas.*

Address: Carl H. Milam, Secretary, American Library Association, *Possibilities of Library Cooperation.*

Address: G. A. Schwegmann, Director of the Union Catalog, Library of Congress, *Photographic Reproduction of Library Cards.*

Discussion Leader: John T. Vance, Chief of the Law Division, Library of Congress.

LUNCHEON MEETING, FEBRUARY 24, 12:30
The Raleigh Hotel

Presiding Officer: Dr. Pedro de Alba, Assistant Director, Pan American Union.

Address: Rafael Heliodoro Valle, of Mexico, *Problems in the Bibliography of Hispanic America.*

Address: Cuthbert Lee, Director, American Documentation Institute, *The American Documentation Institute and Auxiliary Publication.*

BUSINESS MEETING, FEBRUARY 24, 3:00

The Raleigh Hotel

Reports:

The Inter-American Book Exchange, by Raul d'Eça, Director.

The Bibliographical Center of the Pan American Union, by Charles E. Babcock, Librarian.

The Union Catalog of Floridiana, by A. J. Hanna, Rollins College, Winter Park, Florida.

Project to Create a Department of Culture in all of the Spanish-Speaking Countries, by Aída Carreño y Correa, of Santiago, Chile.

The Book Exposition held in Bogotá under the auspices of the National Library of Colombia, July and August, 1938, by Daniel Samper Ortega, former Librarian of the National Library, Counselor of the Colombian Embassy, Washington.

Resolutions and other business.

Inquiries concerning the conference may be addressed to Charles E. Babcock, Secretary General of the Conference, and Librarian, Columbus Memorial Library, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

PAN AMERICAN *Progress*

Achievements of the Bolivian National Convention

The National Convention of Bolivia, elected in March 1938, met on May 26 of that year to restore constitutional government in that country, elect the President and Vice President, and adopt a new Constitution. Lt. Col. Germán Busch, who had been Provisional President for several months, was named President, and Dr. Enrique Baldivieso, Vice President; they took their respective oaths of office on May 28. (For a brief biography of President Busch, see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, December 1938.)

The National Convention closed on October 30. On the 28th it had adopted a new Constitution (see p. 100), which was promulgated by the President two days later. The ceremonies of the final session included oaths to uphold and defend the Constitution by the President and the Vice President, and an address by Dr. Renato Riverín, president of the Convention, in which he summarized its main achieve-

ments. He placed special stress on the following:

The political life of the country has returned to normal through the reestablishment of the Legislative power, the adoption of the new Constitution, the election of the President and Vice President, and the appointment of the members of the Supreme Court.

The Convention ratified international treaties definitely fixing the boundaries of Bolivia with Peru, Chile, Argentina, and Paraguay. Economic, commercial, immigration, and railway agreements with Brazil, Argentina, Peru, and Poland were approved. The Chaco Peace Treaty was ratified, and all differences between Bolivia and Paraguay have been settled.

The Ministry of Health and Hygiene was created, and up to 10,000,000 pesos were appropriated for measures dealing with health, hygiene, and the fight against epidemics.

Decrees canceling petroleum concessions were given the force of laws, and 81 laws were passed on the following subjects:

Constitutional matters; the organization and functioning of the Executive Power; the functioning of the National Convention; justice; public works; roads; aviation; mines and petroleum; universities; the press; historical works and publications; the political division of national territory; diplomatic agreements; authorizations and taxes; awards, retirements, indemnities, and pardons; loans; the budget and customs; amnesties; health, public morals, and sports; tributes and celebrations of an historical nature; social laws; industry; and agriculture.

The President was provided, by the creation of taxes or authorization to borrow money, with the funds necessary for constructing many miles of railways and highways, and for improving public education and national health.

Other measures specifically mentioned by Dr. Riverín were the creation of the Department of Pando, formerly the National Territory of Colonies (it was named for General José Manuel Pando, ex-President of Bolivia and explorer of that region); the reestablishment of the Gabriel René Moreno University, in the city of Santa Cruz; the financing of the Sucre-Camiri Railway; the establishment of absolute equality in the granting of foreign exchange permits and the cancellation of special privileges; the law abolishing all monopoly on flour; and the approval of the general budget for 1939.

Pacts signed by Brazil and Venezuela

Brazil and Venezuela celebrated the 116th anniversary of the convocation of the Congress of Panama by signing two agreements on December 7, 1938.

A treaty of non-aggression, conciliation and arbitration, signed in Caracas, includes the provisions that all controversies

arising from the interpretation of a treaty or from any point of international law shall be submitted to the Permanent Court of International Justice, and that a Permanent Commission of Conciliation shall be established. The Permanent Commission will be composed of five members: A citizen of each country, another appointee of each country and the chairman, who will be appointed by agreement between the two contracting parties. The commission will be given for study all questions on which the two countries are unable to reach an agreement through diplomatic procedure, except those to be submitted to the Permanent Court of International Justice.

At the same time an extradition treaty between the two countries was signed in Rio de Janeiro.

Interministerial Commission established in Argentina

A presidential decree of November 30, 1938 established the Permanent Interministerial Commission on Political Economy, to be composed of representatives of the Ministries of Foreign Affairs, the Treasury, and Agriculture, with provision for the participation of other ministries when the need for coordinated action arises.

Among the principal duties of the commission will be the study of trade treaties or commercial agreements of any kind, both those proposed by foreign governments and the modification of those already in effect. It will also study international political economy as it concerns Argentine economics and any measures in foreign countries that might indirectly affect economic interchange; instruct Argentine delegates to international congresses discussing subjects relative to political economy and international trade; inform the President on new situations at home or abroad affecting international economic conditions; and rec-

commend measures for improving the economic relations of Argentina with the rest of the world.

New institutes in Argentine university

The School of Economic, Commercial and Political Sciences of the Universidad Nacional del Litoral at Rosario, Argentina, has recently enlarged its activities by the establishment of four new institutes which function under its control.

The Institute of International Law, whose director is Dr. Mario Antelo, is in charge of study and research on matters dealing with international law; it will publish important studies made under its direction and prepare a bibliography on the subject.

The Institute of Economic Research is divided into two sections, Dr. Alejandro Nimo being director of the section on economics, and Prof. Juan Luis Ferrarotti having charge of the section on finance. Besides sponsoring research on economic and financial matters, especially those relating to Argentina, this institute will prepare an economic-financial barometer of the country, study public revenues and their expenditure, and publish periodic information on Argentine commerce, production, major industries, banks, bankruptcies, public debt, etc.

The Accounting Institute, whose director is Dr. Alberto Arévalo, and the Institute of Public Law under the directorship of Dr. Rafael Bielsa, will be similar in organization to the other two, but will specialize in the fields indicated by their names.

Argentina decrees liquidation of mortgage moratorium

The Government of Argentina took a most important step in its general program to

obtain normal economic conditions by promulgating on October 10, 1938, a law that provides for the liquidation and re-financing of private mortgage debts,¹ revoking the moratorium in force, as an emergency measure, since October 16, 1933. The Minister of Finance, Dr. Pedro Groppo, and President Ortiz himself delivered explanatory messages to the nation over national broadcasting networks, to make certain that the terms, scope and purposes of the measure were clearly understood. They stressed the need for a "gradual return to contractual normalcy." The emergency which justified the moratorium no longer exists, they asserted, wherefore a liquidation plan has been devised, with due regard for the rights and interests of both debtors and creditors.

Pursuant to the provisions of the new law, liquidation of outstanding mortgage obligations due and payable prior to January 1, 1933, would begin in 1939; those maturing during 1933 and 1934, in 1940; those maturing during 1935-1938, and subsequent thereto, in year 1941. Two alternatives are offered in connection with mortgages payable in full or in yearly instalments exceeding 10 per cent (these constitute the bulk of the obligations affected): (1) A long-term or slow amortization plan, and (2) one providing for liquidation in a relatively short period of time. In the former, the interest stipulated in the original contracts is to obtain, but in the latter it is limited to 6 per cent, and the debtor is given the opportunity of working off his indebtedness rapidly.

Furthermore, the law provides that any debtor covered by its terms may apply to the National Mortgage Bank (Banco Hipotecario Nacional) for a special loan to be used for conversion of his debt, provided that the mortgaged property is a

¹ "Boletín Oficial," Argentina, October 14, 1938, p. 13930.

building in an urban district or rural property under cultivation, and that the total indebtedness shall not exceed, at the expiration of the mortgage moratorium, the sum of 15,000 paper pesos in the first instance, and 20,000 in the second. The loans may be for a maximum of 65 per cent of the appraised value of the property in question.

The liquidation or refinancing may be accomplished in any one of four ways:

(1) The mortgage may be paid off in a period of 5 years at an interest rate of 6 per cent, even in the case where the original contract called for payment of a higher rate. If the mortgage has less than 5 years to run, the debtor may take advantage of the entire 5-year period to liquidate his indebtedness.

(2) The mortgage may be paid off in a period of 10 years, but the interest rate stipulated in the original contract shall prevail.

(3) Where the mortgage debt may be liquidated in annual instalments not exceeding 10 per cent of the original capital, payments are to begin in 1939 in accordance with the stipulations of the original mortgage contract.

(4) Conversion through the National Mortgage Bank as outlined above, into *cédulas* of that institution at 4 or of 5 per cent per annum. The old mortgage is liquidated and a new one issued in its place, for a maximum period of 36 years.

Thus, as President Ortiz explained, "mortgage creditors and debtors will be able to adapt their particular cases to the procedure laid down for the purpose, with greater or lesser celerity in their amortization and with or without assistance from the National Mortgage Bank." About 54,000 mortgage debtors were expected to begin liquidation of their indebtedness on January 1, 1939, under the provisions of the law which "puts an end to the system

of exception and protection" established for the benefit of the nation's debtors in a period of acute economic and financial crisis.

Tingo María colonization center, Peru.

Recognizing that the government program of highway construction in the central and eastern regions of Peru should be accompanied by the establishment of agricultural settlements, President Benavides of Peru issued law No. 8621, of January 20, 1938, providing for state expropriation of the strip of land three miles wide on either side of the highways constructed or to be constructed on the eastern slopes of the Andes, such land to be utilized for colonization purposes. A later law, no. 8687, of July 1, 1938, provided for the expropriation of strips 12.5 miles wide on either side of the highway from Huánuco to the lower Ucayali River and for colonization on small, medium, and large tracts of land.

Regulations for the establishment and operation of this project, known as the Tingo María colonization center, were issued in a Presidential decree of July 23, 1938. Colonization there is available to three types of settlers, the first two concerned chiefly with farming and the third with cattle-raising also.

To those in the first classification, the tract to be granted is not to exceed 74 acres in size. Those entitled to acquire small lots are divided into three classes: Peruvians who have had a primary school education, those discharged from military service, laborers, and farmers deserving of state assistance; native workers at the Tingo María Experiment Station, and nationals who, with some capital at their disposal, need state aid to establish themselves as farmers.

Payment for the farms, amortized over

a period of twenty years, will be made in annual installments starting at the end of the third year after settlement. The laborers employed by the Experiment Farm will pay for their lands by annual contributions of labor equivalent to one-twentieth of the value of their farms.

Medium-sized lots for those included in the second classification shall not exceed 274 acres in area, and shall be available to Peruvians and naturalized foreigners who have obtained permission from the government to apply for them. On signing the contract, the applicant must make a down payment equivalent to ten percent of the value of the property, the balance to be paid off in ten annual payments.

The lands set aside for both agricultural and cattle-raising pursuits (third classification) will also be sold on credit terms. The area of these tracts depends largely upon capital at the disposal of the petitioner and the nature of the proposed cultivation, but in no case will it exceed 7,400 acres. The initial payment will be equal to twenty percent of the value of the farm, and the balance will be paid off in ten annual installments.

Venezuelan Institute for Immigration and Colonization

By a Presidential decree, dated September 15, 1938, an Institute for Immigration and Colonization was established in Venezuela. This institution, though nominally part of the Ministry of Agriculture, will enjoy complete autonomy in its special field, with the exception of some supervisory powers belonging to the Ministries of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, and Public Health. It replaces the Bureau of Immigration, Colonization, and Repatriation, which was directly answerable to the Board of Agricultural Economics of the Ministry of Agriculture. All immigration

contracts must be authorized by the Federal Executive to be valid.

The institute, which will be the only official body competent in matters pertaining to immigration and colonization, will be administered by a board of three members, and financed by a special appropriation in the national budget. Its resources may also be increased by property received from the government, profits realized through operations, and donations.

To establish or enlarge the agricultural colonies, the government may place public lands and national estates at the institute's disposal. When public lands are not available in regions adapted to colonization, the institute, although subject to certain limitations, may acquire private property. Also, if necessary, land may be expropriated in the public interest.

The institute is required to present an annual report, covering its activities for the year past and giving its program for the ensuing year.

Before the Congress convenes for its next regular session, the institute is to submit to the government any amendments that it deems should be made to the present laws for the effective operation of a national immigration and colonization plan.

Regulations for the administration of the institute were issued on September 30, 1938. They provide for cooperation with the government in the following matters: the ethnological improvement of the population of Venezuela by selecting as colonists those most adapted to the geographical and social conditions of the country; an increase in the number of rural land owners; improved quality and lower prices of foodstuffs; larger production of products either now imported or suitable for export; and a general improvement in living conditions of farmers.

The institute will provide technical and administrative aid to settlers, including

credit and tools for individuals and for cooperative societies, and will establish special schools for those desiring to join agricultural colonies.

Information regarding the advantages of settling in Venezuela, its geographical, economic, and social conditions, methods of colonization, facilities offered, and the regulations concerning immigration will be published in several languages. The institute will also draft international agreements and treaties to promote immigration for colonization.

The observance of existing regulations as to immigration contracts, and the transportation, reception, and establishment of immigrants will devolve upon the Institute, which shall also construct, when conditions justify them, immigrants' hostels.

Industrial plants for the preparation of the products raised by colonists and cooperative societies will be constructed by the institute, which will also aid in the marketing of these goods.

Argentine National Committee on Grains and Grain Elevators reports

The Argentine National Committee on Grains and Grain Elevators was established on August 4, 1936. It has recently presented to the President of the Republic its first report, covering the period from its creation to December 31, 1937. This begins by mentioning briefly the structure of the committee and the basis of selection of the administrative and technical personnel. An expert on grain grading was engaged, since such grading is one of the most complex tasks entrusted to the committee. A specialist from the United States was chosen because of the similarity between standards and wheat-growing conditions in the two countries.

The committee has worked in close

cooperation with the Ministry of Agriculture, especially with the genetics bureau. By creating a Tribunal for Government Seed Inspection, the ministry has established the necessary means for coordinating the action of the committee with that of the ministry, so that now the regulation of planting, which is a function of the ministry, is closely linked with the commercial grading of the crop and general improvement in production.

The purposes of the first attempt at grading were: To introduce wheat grading on the basis of classes appropriate for milling and baking—that is, grading the crop as durum, hard, and soft; to take into account in setting prices factors not hitherto considered, such as yellow-berry and broken grains, etc.; to arrange for a transition between the old and new systems; and to reserve to the committee the selection of annual grades, which would be based on the grain as received from the producers and not on that already mixed by traders.

The second attempt at grading utilized suggestions made at a meeting of producers and traders held in September, 1936. The Committee has followed the practice of submitting all important draft resolutions to such meetings for discussion.

Work has also been begun on the grading of linseed, and the committee has defined grades of corn on the basis of moisture-content and broken grains.

The commercial quality of the 1936-37 crop was studied in the various stages of marketing, samples being taken from grain in the possession of producers, elevators, and mills and from export shipments. Special mention was made of the laboratory analysis of the official grades of wheat, the first research of the kind to be undertaken in the country.

Ninety percent of export shipments were given government approval, based on an

analysis of 46,534 samples from 4,506 vessels inspected. Steps were taken to obtain samples of these shipments on their arrival abroad, in order to ascertain the condition in which they reach the purchaser. Certificates of quality are issued by the committee on request of the exporter to assure the purchaser of the condition of the grain at the time of shipment.

Statistics were compiled on the export of grain by district of origin, country of destination, and grade, and on the movement of stocks.

Legal, technical and economic studies of the present and future operation of grain elevators were made. Among the questions considered were the problems arising from the establishment of government-owned elevators. A census of all elevators was taken.

The report also discusses wheat trading in the principal import countries, especially England, the largest purchaser of Argentine grain. Comments are made on the relations of the committee with important grain-dealing firms through its representatives in London, and a detailed explanation of the present trading system in the international market is added.

Highways in Chile

The highway system of Chile, according to a statement published by the South American Union of Engineers' Associations, totals 24,855 miles, of which 932 miles are concrete and bitumen; 7,456, crushed stone or gravel; 9,321, dirt; and 7,146, trails.

The budget for the present year allotted 91,000,000 pesos for the construction of roads and bridges. Of this sum, 25,000,000 pesos were set aside for the maintenance of roads and bridges; 59,000,000 for the survey and construction of roads; 6,000,000 for the design and construction of

larger bridges; and 1,000,000 for the planning and construction of inland waterways.

Sanitary units in new health program in Venezuela

Coordination of efforts and full cooperation among national, state and municipal authorities in sanitary and health matters are declared to be of the utmost public importance by a new Venezuelan law¹ which creates a system of sanitary units throughout the country. It is sought to establish uniform technical principles in improving sanitary, health and general conditions, warding off epidemics and waging relentless war on social diseases. These sanitary units are expected to accomplish their purpose through centralization, under a single authority and a single responsibility, of all activities relative to health and social welfare in the respective jurisdiction. The states and municipalities are to furnish the necessary funds.

Outstanding among the numerous activities assigned to the newly established sanitary units are prevention and prophylaxis, social welfare work, and health education. With the cooperation of the states and municipalities, the Ministry of Sanitation and Social Welfare hopes to see appropriate quarters and hospitals built in every community to take care of persons in need of medical or surgical treatment. The personnel is being trained both at home and abroad, young physicians being sent to the United States for post-graduate work, while in Caracas courses are offered to physicians and nurses who wish to specialize in public health work. Health inspectors and nurses are also being trained for the staffs of the sanitary units, as the best means of insuring the success of this work.

¹ *Ley de Sanidad Nacional, Gaceta Oficial, Venezuela, July 22, 1938.*

Peruvian Committee of Intellectual Cooperation

By a Presidential decree of September 20, 1938, the Peruvian Committee on Intellectual Cooperation was established. Its purpose is to spread in foreign nations a knowledge of intellectual activities in Peru and to enter into cultural relations with similar committees, especially with the Institute of Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations.

The committee will be composed of 25 members; the initial membership will be appointed by the government, but thereafter the committee will be self-perpetuating. The following thirteen members will hold office *ex officio*: The rector of the University of San Marcos; a representative of each of the three other national universities; the Director General of Education; one representative each of the Catholic University of Lima, the National Academy of Medicine, the Bar Association of Lima, the Geographic Society, the Historical Institute, and the Academy of Sciences, once this has been legally incorporated; the Director of the National Library; and the Chief of the League of Nations and International Congresses and Conferences Bureau of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, who will act as secretary.

Authors of books, pamphlets, and other publications of an intellectual nature must henceforth deposit two copies in the Library of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, where they will be at the disposal of the committee.

Quito linked to continental air routes

With the arrival of the Pan American-Grace Airways plane at Quito on November 19, 1938, the capital of Ecuador was linked by air with all other American cap-

itals. Planes from the north stop at Quito en route from Cali, Colombia, to Guayaquil, once a week, and those from the south twice a week.

The location of Quito in an Andine valley 9,500 feet above sea level, made it difficult to establish air connections between that city and other regions. Army planes were the only ones using the Marshal Sucre airport until this year. In 1937 the SEDTA (Sociedad Ecuatoriana de Transportes Aéreos) was authorized by the government to establish a passenger and mail air service between Quito and Guayaquil. The first regular flight was made on July 11, 1938, and in September the schedule was increased to three round trips a week.

Quito was the last South American capital to be connected with the continental air routes. Regular service to Asunción, Paraguay, on the Buenos Aires-Rio de Janeiro route, was inaugurated in February, 1938. In 1937 the company began the so-called "diagonal" service between Córdoba, Argentina, and Arequipa, Peru, via La Paz. In this way the Bolivian capital was connected directly with the regular air routes to Buenos Aires and northward to Lima and the United States.

Homestead law in Uruguay

The establishment of homesteads, defined as dwellings or farms occupied or cultivated by the members of one family, was provided for in Uruguay by a law of May 5, 1938. Included in the homestead, which may not exceed 5,000 pesos in value, are the machinery and tools of the laborer or farmer necessary for the work of the individual and his family and used exclusively on the property; the necessary draught animals; four milch cows; and six months' supply of food and fuel. The homestead may be set up by

the husband, by the husband and wife, by the wife, or by a grandparent for minor grandchildren. No property that is mortgaged or otherwise encumbered may be made a homestead.

The law prescribes the procedure for making any property into a homestead and defines the rights of creditors. Once the property has become a homestead, neither it nor the profits from it can be attached. It can, however, under certain conditions, be sold.

Argentine Public Works Council

The government of Argentina established by a decree of June 24, 1938, a National Public Works Council. The principal duties of the new organization will be to pass on all State public work projects costing 100,000 pesos or more, before the appropriations for them are made; to suggest the annual expenditures for public works to be included in the budget; to submit to the President methods of financing new proposed works; to pass on the methods of contracting for works costing more than 500,000 pesos; and to advise the President or cabinet members on any matter relating to public works.

Mineral production of Brazil

In discussing the mineral wealth of Brazil and the possibilities of future development of this source of income, the *Jornal do Commercio* of Rio de Janeiro has published the following comparative figures on production and exportation of the following materials:

GOLD PRODUCTION		
	Kilograms (2.2 lbs.)	Value in thousands of milreis
1935.....	3, 676	68, 353
1936.....	3, 900	74, 437
1937.....	4, 534	80, 617

COAL PRODUCTION

	Metric tons	Value in thousands of milreis
1935.....	756, 953	36, 687
1936.....	649, 451	32, 265
1937.....	762, 789	40, 054

EXPORTS OF MANGANESE

	Metric tons	
1935.....	60, 600	6, 676
1936.....	166, 471	16, 342
1937.....	247, 115	44, 730

CEMENT PRODUCTION

	Metric tons	
1935.....	364, 208	74, 762
1936.....	488, 023	105, 412
1937.....	571, 452	125, 342

The textile industry in Pernambuco, Brazil

The textile industry in Pernambuco has recently developed greatly. The census of 1930 showed that there were 9 factories, with a capital of 36,000 contos, while in 1938 there were 22, with a capital of over 150,000 contos.

Thirteen factories are making cotton textiles, one of them including knit goods; 4, jute or similar fiber fabrics; 1, silk, cotton and woolen knit goods; 2, rope and other articles of coconut fiber; 1, rope of caroa fiber; and 1, silk fabrics and cotton and jute thread.

Exports of cotton goods from the state during the last four years were valued at more than 355,000 contos.

National Cultural Council established in Brazil

A National Cultural Council has been established in Brazil to coordinate all cultural activities undertaken or sponsored by the Ministry of Education and Health. The council is specifically charged to study the work of all public and private cultural institutions throughout the country, make suggestions to the government

for the improvement of its services for the development of cultural activities, and make recommendations as to the subsidies to be granted to private cultural institutions by the government. The council is composed of seven members, appointed by the President, four of whom will be high officials of the Ministry of Education.

Exchange of official publications between Bolivia and Ecuador

The former Chargé d'Affaires of Ecuador in Bolivia, Señor Hugo Moncayo, has sent to the Pan American Union the text of a Convention on the Exchange of Official Publications signed between the two countries on May 20, 1938. According to the provisions of the treaty, each government will send to the other two copies of the official publications of its various administrative, legislative, and judicial branches, and also government studies on economics, finance, commerce, education, and labor, scientific and literary works published entirely or in part with public funds, maps, publicity material, and musical compositions. Art exhibits, supplemented by printed matter on history, economics, or art, for free distribution, will be exchanged annually. Each contracting party also agrees that in its primary and normal schools the history, physical and political geography, and literature of the other will be studied, with emphasis on their common origin and their similar sociological problems.

The teaching of Portuguese in Paraguay

As an act of inter-American cultural rapprochement the Government of Paraguay has decreed that Portuguese be taught in the public schools of the country. Spanish has been taught for some time in the pub-

lic schools of Brazil, the great Portuguese speaking nation. Argentina and Uruguay established the teaching of Portuguese in their public schools several years ago to strengthen their cultural relations with their neighbor to the north.

Fiftieth anniversary prize of the Venezuelan Academy of History

The Venezuelan National Academy of History has announced that as part of the celebration of its fiftieth anniversary it will sponsor a competition, open to all Hispano-American writers, on the subject "The origins, development, and tendencies of the various revolutionary movements occurring in the Spanish colonies of America up to and including the year 1810." A diploma and a prize of 5,000 bolivars will be granted to the author of the winning paper, who will be announced at the open meeting of the Academy on October 28, 1939.

Pan American Neuropsychiatry Congress

Organization work is progressing favorably, according to late reports, in connection with the Pan American Neuropsychiatry Congress which is to convene in Lima, Peru, on March 20, 1939. There is unusual interest among outstanding members of the medical profession throughout the continent to attend the *Jornadas*, as the congress is called, which grew out of the purely regional and highly successful Congress of the Pacific, held at Santiago, Chile, in 1937. Among the subjects listed in the agenda are: Biological basis for the disfranchisement of the mentally afflicted; anatomy, physiology, surgery, physiopathology and clinical aspects of pain; pain and narcotic addiction, and pain in legal medicine; hypochondriasis

and hypochondriac manifestations; hypochondriasis: history, clinical aspects, psychology, constitution and legal medicine; treatment of schizophrenia; social service in aid to the mentally afflicted; and deontology in the practice of social security.

Prominent specialists from many countries are expected to submit reports on the various subjects covered by the agenda.

Central American Stamp Exhibition

To celebrate the First Central American Stamp Exhibition, held in Guatemala November 20-27, 1938, the Government issued two series of six stamps each, in honor of the republics invited to participate—Costa Rica, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama. In one series each stamp displayed prominently the flag of one of the republics, while in the other, the portraits of the presidents were similarly featured. The issue was for foreign air mail.

New Rector of the National University, Colombia

Dr. Agustín Nieto Caballero was elected rector (president) of the National University of Colombia, in Bogotá, at a meeting of the Governing Board of that institution on October 10, 1938, and inaugurated on October 13.

For nearly 25 years Dr. Nieto Caballero has been a prominent figure in the educational circles of his country, where as founder and director of the Gimnasio Moderno and former chief of the Bureau of Primary and Normal Schools in the Ministry of National Education his influence on Colombian education has been deep and lasting. He is also well known abroad, where his participation in international congresses has not only brought

him personal renown but also reflected great credit on his native land.

Physical Education Bureau in Argentina

The Physical Education Bureau was created as a dependency of the Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction of Argentina, by a decree published in the *Boletín Oficial* of July 6, 1938.

Among its duties, the new bureau will: Supervise all establishments devoted to physical education or sports receiving financial support from the ministry; cooperate with the National Children's Board and the General Office of School Inspection in matters of physical education; plan the curriculum and methods to be used in teaching the subject; organize school exhibitions and competitions; and cooperate with the National Physical Education Council, established in 1937. The bureau will have direct charge of the National Physical Education Institute, the General San Martín Vacation Camp, and the athletic field at San Fernando, Province of Buenos Aires.

Tenth anniversary of the Mexican Symphony Orchestra

On September 2, 1928, the Mexican Symphony Orchestra began its first season, under the leadership of Carlos Chávez. The programs of the initial concert carried a note explaining the purpose and organization of the orchestra, a group of musicians come together to satisfy their own musical tastes. They aimed at perfection, and hoped to eradicate the false idea that music is something inaccessible, complicated, and difficult to understand. "The orchestra"—to quote from the program—"wishes only to study, to work, to be a strong and living organism; . . . it desires

to create an organism whose resultant life and vigor will bear fruit as a natural consequence."

Ten years later the Orchestra closed its eleventh season. For ten successive evenings a series of concerts that included compositions by Beethoven, Bach, Mozart, Debussy, Ravel, Falla, Stravinsky, Shostakovich, Sibelius, Berezowsky, the conductor himself, and his compatriot Candelario Huízar had drawn audiences filling the Palace of Fine Arts Theater to capacity. The orchestra has not only become a fine musical organization, but has trained its public, drawn from all levels of society, to appreciate musical fare of a high order.

The orchestra gives, in addition to its regular pay series of concerts on Friday nights, which are also widely broadcast, free Sunday morning concerts to workers, who obtain tickets through the unions, and special children's concerts on Saturday mornings.

The Dominican Republic creates an archaeological commission

The government of the Dominican Republic created on September 8, 1938, the National Archaeological Commission to study its pre-Columbian and colonial remains and suggest standards for their care. The following members were appointed by President Peynado: Sr. Porfirio Herrera, Sr. Osvaldo Báez Soler, Sr. Luis E. Alemar, Sra. Abigail Mejía, and Sr. José Antonio Caro A.

New Law School building for the University of Chile

On October 31, 1938 the Law School of the University of Chile moved to new quarters on the banks of the Mapocho River,

opposite San Cristóbal Hill. The new edifice, built at a cost of 6,000,000 pesos, contains, in addition to class and seminar rooms, a gymnasium, an assembly hall, a library with equipment for 60,000 books, dental and medical clinics, and quarters for the student welfare organization.

The law school was the last branch of the university to leave the old building in the heart of the city. It has been announced that the former main university building will now be used largely for cultural organizations. Among those having its headquarters there will be the Writers Association, the Historical and Geographic Society and the Academy of Letters. Free programs of cultural motion pictures and lectures and other means of acquainting the public with scientific and literary knowledge will be given in the building.

Public works appropriation in Cuba

By a decree of October 11, 1938 one million pesos were appropriated to begin, continue and conclude public works throughout the island. Over a third of this sum will be spent on highway and street works.

Medical education trucks tour Mexico

The Mexican Automobile Association has given publicity to the medical education trucks sent by the government to instruct inhabitants of isolated districts in the care of certain diseases. The trucks, which are provided with tested specifics, penetrate the far reaches of jungle and mountain country, where people are taught how to care for their sick, feed and bathe babies, and avoid epidemics. The "Malarial Truck" travels for weeks in country that few white men enter, and its staff spreads the rules of health, provides material for explanation and instruction, and distributes quantities of quinine.

*Three scientific congresses meet in
El Salvador*

On November 5, 1938 the joint open session of the fifth Central American Medical Congress, the Second Central American Pharmaceutical Congress and the First Central American Dental Congress was held in the University at San Salvador. These congresses give professional men in Central America an opportunity to discuss their common problems and exchange experiences. During the following week the three congresses met independently and many valuable papers were read. At the closing session, held on November 13, it was voted to hold the next meeting of these congresses in Tegucigalpa in December 1940.

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Loans to small farmers in Chile

The Farm Credit Bank of Chile has been authorized by law 6290, published in the *Gaceta Oficial* of October 7, 1938, to lend up to 30,000,000 paper pesos to small farmers, who are defined by the law as owners or lessees of land under cultivation, which land is valued at not more than 50,000 pesos. Of the sum made available, two thirds are to be used for loans not exceeding 5,000 pesos and the remaining third for loans not exceeding 10,000 pesos. Preference is to be given to farmers who plan to purchase seeds, tools and livestock or plant fruit trees and timber with the proceeds. The loans will run for 7 years at 5 percent and will be made without notarial and other charges.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima, Peru, in 1938. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant

Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, intellectual and agricultural cooperation, juridical matters, and travel, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 90,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



Ninth Commemoration of Pan American Day

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, the date of whose foundation—April 14—is celebrated annually as Pan American Day, is preparing to commemorate in 1940 its fiftieth anniversary. In the nearly five decades that have passed, its fruitful labor has contributed notably to fostering closer and more cordial relations between the twenty-one republics of the American Continent.

Thanks to the strong support that the governments, peoples, and institutions of the American nations have given the Pan American Union since its establishment in 1890 by the First International Conference of American States, it has gone through a process of constant evolution until it is today an international headquarters with functions in many fields of human activity, as may be seen by the brief account at the beginning of this issue.

Because of the important contributions that the Pan American Union has made to the development of closer economic and social relations among the American countries, the Eighth International Conference of American States, assembled at Lima last December, recommended that the semi-centennial of its founding should be observed with appropriate ceremonies in all the countries of the Union, not only by official agencies but also by organizations and institutions interested in economic, scientific, cultural and social relations.

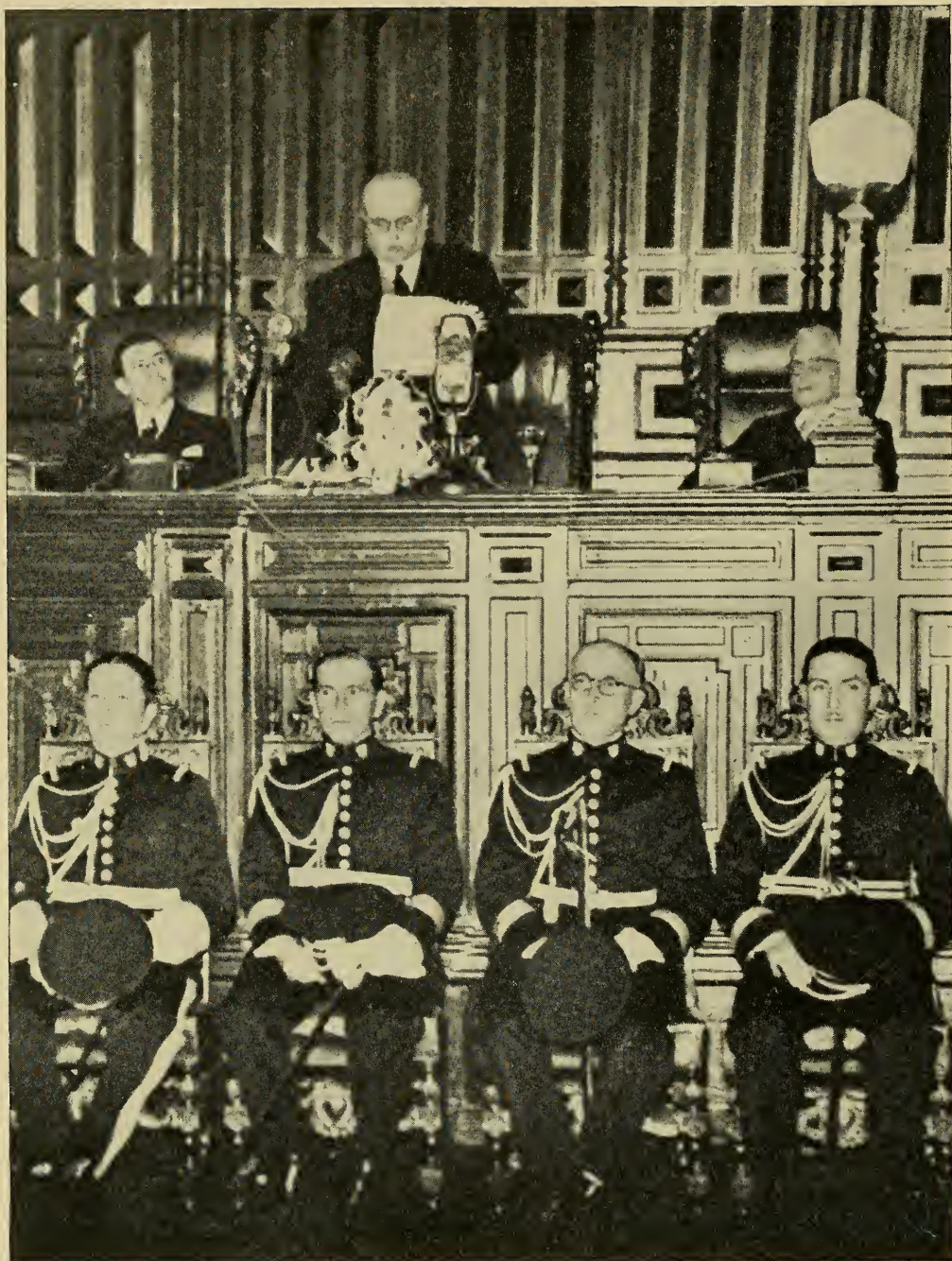
On the occasion of the ninth commemoration of Pan American Day, the Pan American Union sends its most cordial greetings to the governments and citizens of the Americas, and takes pleasure in once more placing at their disposal all the services at its command.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General*

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Photograph by M. González Salazar

THE OPENING SESSION OF THE EIGHTH INTERNATIONAL
CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

President Óscar R. Benavides of Peru delivered an address of welcome to the delegates of the twenty-one American nations assembled in Lima for the Eighth International Conference of American States.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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MARCH 1939

The Eighth International Conference of American States

L. S. ROWE, Ph. D., LL. D.

Director General of the Pan American Union

FOR the opening of the Eighth International Conference of American States, the Peruvian Government selected December 9, 1939. This day is a national holiday in Peru, commemorating the anniversary of the great battle which brought to an end Spanish rule in South America. The formal opening session was devoted to the address of welcome by the President of the Republic, General Óscar R. Benavides. The first plenary session was held on the following day. At this session the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Peru, Dr. Carlos Concha, was elected permanent President of the Conference. To his address response was made by the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Argentina, Dr. José María Cantilo, who was paying an official visit to Peru but was not a member of the Argentine Delegation. At this session addresses were also delivered by the Hon. Cordell Hull, Chairman of the Delegation of the

United States, and Dr. Max Henríquez Ureña, Chairman of the Delegation of the Dominican Republic.

The Government of Peru had made most elaborate preparations for the entertainment of the Conference. Under the able direction of the Peruvian Ambassador to Colombia, the Hon. Arturo García Salazar, a most efficient and competent secretariat was organized and fully prepared to function on the opening day of the Conference. The Peruvian Minister of Foreign Affairs, together with the Secretary General and all the members of the staff, spared no effort in looking after the convenience and comfort of the delegates. Because of this fine organization it was possible for the Conference to complete its labors within the brief period of eighteen days. The hospitality of both the Government and the people of Peru knew no bounds. In addition to the official recep-



Photograph by M. González Salazar

tions and banquets tendered by the Government, private organizations vied with one another in extending courtesies to the delegates.

Some days prior to the assembling of the Conference the Committee of Experts on the Codification of International Law met in order to complete its report to the Conference. This report was considered by the Conference Committee on International Law and made the basis of the resolutions of the Conference relating to this subject.

The American Institute of International Law held several meetings during the Conference, advantage being taken of the presence of many members of the Institute who happened to be in Lima, in either an official or unofficial capacity. Several new members were elected to fill vacancies in the membership and a program of future action agreed upon.

The representatives of the Inter-American Commission of Women were also in

attendance and submitted a report as contemplated by the agenda. During a recess of the plenary session of December 22 members of the Commission addressed the assembled delegates. On this occasion representatives of "The Peoples' Mandate to End War" also spoke.

The Pan American Sanitary Bureau designated Dr. Edward C. Ernst, Dr. Dagoberto González A. and Dr. John D. Long to be at Lima during the sessions of the Conference in order to place their services and the facilities of the Bureau at the disposal of the delegates.

The work of the Conference was divided amongst seven committees, one for each section of the agenda. In addition to these seven committees there was a Committee on Initiatives, composed of the heads of the respective delegations, a Committee on Credentials, and a Drafting Committee. The Committee on Initiatives was in reality the "steering committee" of the Conference.



OPENING SESSION OF THE EIGHTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

On December 9, 1938, the Conference was opened in the capitol at Lima.

Under the plan of operation of the Conference each Committee was made up of one or more delegates from each of the twenty-one republics. The conclusions reached by these committees therefore represented agreements of the twenty-one republics. The main purpose of the plenary sessions was to give final approval to conclusions reached by the respective committees and to afford opportunity for addresses on the more general aspects of the Pan American situation by members of the various delegations.

The Conference was, in many respects, the most significant of the series that had its inception at the Washington Conference of 1889. It was evident at the outset that the events in Europe and in the Far East were destined to have far-reaching influence on the deliberations. The spectacle of aggression by the totalitarian States served to strengthen the feeling of unity and solidarity of the American republics and found eloquent expression in the

declarations and resolutions adopted by the Conference.

Of the one hundred and twelve declarations, resolutions, and recommendations adopted by the Conference, first place must be given to two declarations having for their purpose—

First: To protect the Continent from any danger that may menace it from without.

Second: To assure the peace of the Western Hemisphere.

The first of these declarations was designated the "Declaration of the Principles of the Solidarity of America," otherwise to be known as the "Declaration of Lima"; the second is entitled "Declaration of American Principles."

The Declaration of Lima formulates the united determination of the American republics to uphold and defend the principles of American democracy against any danger that may menace them and specifically declares that in case of aggression

the solidarity of the American republics will be made effective by consultation and joint action. Its precise text is as follows:

DECLARATION OF THE PRINCIPLES OF THE SOLIDARITY OF AMERICA

The Eighth International Conference of American States,

Considering:

That the peoples of America have achieved spiritual unity through the similarity of their republican institutions, their unshakable will for peace, their profound sentiment of humanity and tolerance, and through their absolute adherence to the principles of international law, of the equal sovereignty of States and of individual liberty without religious or racial prejudices;

That on the basis of such principles and will, they seek and defend the peace of the continent and work together in the cause of universal concord;

That respect for the personality, sovereignty, and independence of each American State constitutes the essence of international order sustained by continental solidarity, which historically has been expressed and sustained by declarations and treaties in force; and

That the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, held at Buenos Aires, approved on December 21, 1936, the Declaration of the Principles of Inter-American Solidarity and Cooperation, and approved, on December 23, 1936, the Protocol of Non-Intervention,

The Governments of the American States
DECLARE:

First. That they reaffirm their continental solidarity and their purpose to collaborate in the maintenance of the principles upon which the said solidarity is based.

Second. That faithful to the above-mentioned principles and to their absolute sovereignty, they reaffirm their decision to maintain them and to defend them against all foreign intervention or activity that may threaten them.

Third. And in case the peace, security or territorial integrity of any American Republic is thus threatened by acts of any nature that may impair them, they proclaim their common concern and their determination to make effective their solidarity, coordinating their respective sovereign wills by means of the procedure of consultation, established by conventions in force and by declarations of the Inter-American Conferences, using the measures which in each case the circumstances

may make advisable. It is understood that the Governments of the American Republics will act independently in their individual capacity, recognizing fully their juridical equality as sovereign states.

Fourth. That in order to facilitate the consultations established in this and other American peace instruments, the Ministers for Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, when deemed desirable and at the initiative of any one of them, will meet in their several capitals by rotation and without protocolary character. Each government may, under special circumstances or for special reasons, designate a representative as a substitute for its Minister for Foreign Affairs.

Fifth. This Declaration shall be known as the "Declaration of Lima."

The "Declaration of American Principles" is equally significant and is in effect a code of inter-American policy. It embodies the guiding principles of the Pan American movement and constitutes a new assurance of peace and tranquillity in the Western World. The text of this instrument is as follows:

DECLARATION OF AMERICAN PRINCIPLES

Whereas:

The need for keeping alive the fundamental principles of relations among nations was never greater than today; and

Each State is interested in the preservation of world order under law, in peace with justice, and in the social and economic welfare of mankind,

The Governments of the American Republics
RESOLVE:

To proclaim, support and recommend, once again, the following principles, as essential to the achievement of the aforesaid objectives:

1. The intervention of any State in the internal or external affairs of another is inadmissible.

2. All differences of an international character should be settled by peaceful means.

3. The use of force as an instrument of national or international policy is proscribed.

4. Relations between States should be governed by the precepts of international law.

5. Respect for and the faithful observance of treaties constitute the indispensable rule for the development of peaceful relations between States, and treaties can only be revised by agreement of the contracting parties.

6. Peaceful collaboration between representatives of the various States and the development of intellectual interchange among their peoples is conducive to an understanding by each of the problems of the other as well as of problems common to all, and makes more readily possible the peaceful adjustment of international controversies.

7. Economic reconstruction contributes to national and international well-being, as well as to peace among nations.

8. International cooperation is a necessary condition to the maintenance of the aforementioned principles.

As for the numerous resolutions adopted, it is impossible within limited space to set forth their content in detail. There are, however, a few of such importance as to merit special consideration. Of these two of the most significant relate respectively to aliens resident in America, based on a project submitted by the Brazilian delegation, and to political activities of foreigners, based on projects submitted by the Argentine and Uruguayan delegations. The tendency of the European totalitarian States to organize their nationals residing in American countries has created a situation that has aroused serious misgiving. It was felt by the delegates that the organization of minorities constitutes a menace to the unity of national life and a disturbing influence in the internal affairs of the respective republics. It was with a view to meeting this danger that the Conference adopted these two resolutions, the first of which is couched in the following terms:

Residents who, according to domestic laws, are considered aliens, cannot claim collectively the condition of minorities; individually, however, they will continue to enjoy the rights to which they are entitled.

According to the second, the Conference resolved:

To recommend to the Governments of the American Republics that they consider the desirability of adopting measures prohibiting the collective exercise within their territory, by resident



Photograph by M. González Salazar

DR. CARLOS CONCHA

Dr. Concha, Minister for Foreign Affairs of Peru and President of the Eighth Conference, addressed the first plenary session.

aliens, of political rights invested in such aliens by the laws of their respective countries.

In perfecting the machinery for the maintenance of peace the delegates were agreed that some plan should be adopted to facilitate consultation between the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics. A proposal was made by the Chilean delegation to create a permanent organ of consultation to be composed of the diplomatic representatives of the American republics in the capital city to be designated by each International Conference of American States. Another proposal made by the Argentine delegation provided for meetings of the Foreign Ministers, or representatives appointed by them, to discuss matters of common interest whenever advisable and also made

provision for regional meetings to consider matters of special importance to groups of states. The resolution in its final form simply provided for consultation between the Ministers of Foreign Affairs or other representatives on any matters of common interest, such meetings to be called upon the initiative of one or more governments but only to assemble after the other governments members of the Union have given their assent. Thus this resolution broadens the field of consultation by adding to peace, mentioned in the Declaration of Lima, "any economic, cultural, or other question which, by reason of its importance, justifies this procedure."

Realizing the importance of establishing closer cultural ties between the nations of the Americas, the Conference gave preferential attention to the different aspects of these problems. Thirty-six resolutions were adopted designed to promote cooperation in almost every field of intellectual endeavor. These resolutions cover such subjects as library exchange; teaching of the principles of American democracy; the revision of school textbooks; closer cooperation between scientific and technical institutions and organizations; and a more extensive use of radio broadcasting for the purpose of bringing the nations of America closer to one another.

A resolution was also adopted urging the American Republics to support the construction of the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse at the capital of the Dominican Republic.

Economic problems were likewise accorded an important place. The most significant resolution reaffirmed the declarations of the Montevideo and the Buenos Aires Conferences, calling upon the governments to reduce existing restrictions on international trade and endorsing the negotiation of trade agreements embodying the principle of equality of

treatment. At the same time, the resolution recommended that the governments substitute as soon as possible reasonable tariffs in place of other forms of trade restrictions; that they reduce administrative and technical formalities in connection with imports to the minimum required for the enforcement of the customs laws; that they negotiate trade agreements embodying the principle of non-discrimination; and that they encourage other nations to adopt commercial policies embodying these principles.

Another important resolution provides for periodic and regional meetings of representatives of the Treasuries of the various Republics to be held at least once a year for the discussion of questions of mutual interest. The first meeting of these representatives will be held at Guatemala City, June 1, 1939, in accordance with arrangements to be worked out by the Pan American Union. The Pan American Union was also to consider the desirability of convening a World Economic Conference. Other resolutions were adopted looking toward the construction of the Pan American highway and the fostering of improved maritime and railway communications, tourist travel, and inter-American radio broadcasts.

The consideration of the political and civil rights of women occupied much of the attention of the Conference. The report of the Inter-American Commission of Women was submitted to the special committee dealing with this subject. Resolutions relating to political and civil rights of women were also presented by various delegations. The most important work of the Conference in this field was the formulation of what is to be known as "The Lima Declaration in Favor of Women's Rights." Based on the project submitted by the delegation of Mexico and on the suggestion of the Cuban dele-



Photograph by M. González Salazar

PRESIDENT BENAVIDES OF PERU AND SOME OF HIS GUESTS

On the closing day of the Lima Conference President Benavides gave a sumptuous banquet to all the delegates to the Conference and their wives.

gation in favor of the convention on the civil and political rights of women, the Declaration sets forth the right of women to political treatment on the basis of equality with men; the enjoyment of equality as to civil status; full protection in and opportunity for work; and the most ample maternity protection. There was also adopted a resolution recommending that measures be taken to improve the social condition of rural women and that rural educational centers and social welfare institutions be established in country districts. Another resolution recommended that the Pan American Union study the possibility of convening an Inter-American Conference of Women. The Pan American Union was also charged with the duty of publishing biographies of

the women of the Americas who have distinguished themselves by their social, economic, political, scientific, literary or artistic achievements. At the suggestion of the Mexican delegation, another resolution was adopted recommending that the status of indigenous women be considered at the First Inter-American Conference on Indian Life to be held at La Paz in August 1939.

As at all previous Pan American Conferences, the Pan American Union in its capacity as the permanent organ of these Conferences occupied a prominent place in both the discussions and the resolutions of the Conference. Many of the resolutions entrusted new duties to the Union, and the Conference expressed to the Governing Board of the Union a deep sense of

obligation for its contributions toward strengthening the Pan American movement.

One of the important topics on the agenda of the Conference was the question of the relation between the Pan American Union and other international organizations. This topic, by resolution of the Buenos Aires Conference, had been entrusted to the study of the Governing Board of the Union with the request that a report be submitted to the Eighth Conference. The Conference gave careful consideration to this report and recommended that the Pan American Union and other Pan American organs cooperate, within the limits of their organic statutes, with international organizations in other parts of the world, and furthermore, that these Pan American organs coordinate as far as possible their investigations on economic, social, cultural and juridical topics with those of other international organizations. Another resolution, which was introduced by the delegation of Colombia, requested the Governing Board of the Pan American Union to convene, whenever necessary, special or technical conferences of plenipotentiary delegates to consider matters of interest to the American Republics and to give preference in the programs of future International Conferences of American States to questions relating to the maintenance of peace and those regulating the general political relations of the American Republics.

The fiftieth anniversary of the Pan American Union, April 14, 1940, also received the attention of the Conference in a resolution expressing the appreciation of the American Republics for the important contributions of the Union during

the many years of its existence and recommending that the anniversary be observed with appropriate ceremonies in all the countries members of the Union.

The significance of the Lima Conference is not only to be found in the declarations and resolutions adopted but is also to be judged by the spiritual atmosphere in which the Conference was held. It was a source of inspiration to every one who attended to witness the unity of purpose of all the delegations. While there were differences of opinion as to method there was complete agreement with reference to the ends to be attained. Throughout the discussions, both in the committee meetings and in the plenary sessions, there was evident the conviction that the safety of the Americas rests upon their solidarity of action and unity of policy and that in reaffirming and strengthening the principle formulated by the Buenos Aires Conference of 1936, namely, that the American republics assume the full responsibility for the maintenance and preservation of the peace of the Continent, the Conference added another guarantee to the peaceful and orderly development of the American nations. In solemnly declaring that the American republics will make their solidarity effective whenever the peace of the American continent is threatened, the American republics gave notice to the world that the Western Hemisphere must remain free from the domination of European or Asiatic powers.

The Lima Conference marks an important step forward in the establishment of an international system based on cooperation and mutual helpfulness, a system from which the use of force has been eliminated and in which the sanctity of treaty obligations will be observed.

American Solidarity

Excerpts from Addresses Delivered at the Eighth International Conference of American States

I

IT IS GRATIFYING to all of us, as sons of a continent characterized by devotion to law and by ideals of solidarity, to follow America's international standing in the world, from the time when the pealing of the Liberty Bell in Philadelphia announced the first constructive step of the greatest event in history. This was the birth, in a world then apparently static as far as the circumscription of power, progress, initiative and science was concerned, of a new world called upon to establish a balance of authority, a compensation of influence, a redistribution of wealth; to serve as an inexhaustible field for labor, as an incentive for the reward of effort and, eventually, as a center of security during an unsettled period, and as an ark of refuge from the flood of passions aroused by long-standing political and economic conflicts.

During the nineteenth century the struggle for independence was followed by the struggle for equality and for internal control by each government. We were already emancipated, we had brought forth into history a group of nations determined to be free, but the old European powers refused to consider us their equals and in each of our countries tried to restrict our exercise of jurisdiction by claiming privileges they would not have tolerated or accepted in their mutual relations. At the same time, they denied us a voice in world politics and in the interdependence of human interests. Barely thirty-nine years ago, when there was held at The Hague the first of the great international conferences attended by countries of both

the old and the new worlds, only two of our nations were invited to take part in its labors. Today, however, in this genuinely American assembly, we feel that all the nations outside our continent are interested in observing the growing strength of political and juridical cohesion between twenty-one countries which, united by the same sentiments and guided by a single collective conscience, have banded together to travel in one caravan the still undisclosed paths of the coming centuries. . . .

The American whose toil gave us full possession of our Continent; who plowed the furrows on the Argentine pampas; who struggled westward to settle the United States; who forced his way into the jungles of Brazil; who penetrated the heart of the Peruvian Andes; who in all the latitudes of all our Nations, large or small, knew how to conquer unsurmountable difficulties by his brave effort, could not foresee, in his titanic struggle with nature, that not only terrestrial roads but those of the spirit would lead us today to this free and fraternal meeting. All paths are now open for our agreement, and recognizing that this reality is the outcome of the convictions and efforts of successive generations, let us pay homage, as our descendants will do in years to come, to the heroes of Liberty, whose spirits, awaiting us in the hereafter, have guided our steps.

Let us remember that while we have definitely found ourselves, other men beyond the seas are watching our example and listening for our message. It is more than four centuries since Columbus's cara-

vels, taking mystery for a compass, hoisted their adventurous sails and set forth in search of a new continent, upon which was poured a centuries-old civilization. . . Today the American spirit, taking its stand upon facts and disregarding assumptions, can show a distracted world the realization of our ideal of peace and the evidence of an unfailing belief in righteousness.

ÓSCAR BENAVIDES,
President of Peru.

II

The solidarity of America has been unanimously proclaimed by the most influential spokesmen of the continent in the Declaration of Principles signed two years ago at the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, assembled in Buenos Aires; but that Declaration, which is based on the existence of a purely American system designed to preserve peace and proscribe war, did not take into consideration the increasingly great need to defend our own political and social order against all foreign intervention or activity that may threaten it. . . .

We firmly believe that the New World will not be ready to fulfill its lofty historic mission if it does not point out the similar traits that constitute its indisputable unity, and stand forth as a compact whole made up of all the nations composing it, without, of course, either suppressing or destroying the individual characteristics of each nation. And this is unquestionably one of the noble achievements of the Eighth International Conference of American States.

To achieve that end, nothing was needed but the full clarification of our respective positions with regard to our single-minded desire to reaffirm continental solidarity, without diminution of our respective sovereignties, which are never subject to discussion. All the formulas submitted to our consideration upheld the Declaration

of Lima to a greater or lesser extent, recognized expressly the juridical equality of the American States, and maintained the independence of each of them to proceed freely whenever, the peace, security or territorial integrity of the Republics of the continent having been threatened by acts of any nature, it would be necessary to have recourse to the consultative procedure provided for in the Convention on the Maintenance, Preservation, and Reestablishment of Peace, signed at Buenos Aires. . . .

All we desire is to strengthen our existence through ties guaranteeing and perpetuating the institutions in which we have placed our hope and our faith, and to contribute to the peace and welfare of mankind, pledging, in sincere cooperation, the great potentialities inherent in our genuinely American ideals. . . .

When the Eighth International Conference of American States summed up in the Declaration of Lima our desire for continental solidarity, and when it reaffirmed our common ideals of peace and justice as superior to any possible appeal to the arbitrament of force, it fully met all expectations and rendered efficient service to posterity. In the same generous and magnificent land whence 114 years ago the summons to the Congress of Panama was issued, the great dream of Bolívar has been fulfilled. May his august presence continue to watch over the evolution of the American spirit and, under his tutelary guidance, may my country always have the honor and the good fortune to be able to contribute, henceforth as in the past, to the growth of the moral unity of America.

CARLOS CONCHA,
*Minister of Foreign Affairs of Peru,
Chairman of the Peruvian Delegation,
and President of the Eighth
International Conference of American
States.*

III

American solidarity, gentlemen, is a fact, which no one does or can doubt. Each and every one of us is ready to maintain and approve this solidarity in the face of any danger that, no matter whence it comes, threatens the independence or the sovereignty of any State in this part of the world. For this we need no special pacts. The pact is already written in our history. In such an emergency we should act with one and the same impulse, all frontiers wiped out, a single flag for all—that flag the standard of liberty and justice.

It is not only a piece of land that, should the case arise, we should all defend in sacred union. We are resolved to repel with the same tenacity, either by similar preventative measures or by combined direct action, everything implying a threat against the American order, every infiltration of men or ideas that reflect and tend to implant in our soil and in our minds concepts foreign to our manner of life, ideals antagonistic to ours, forms of government that menace our liberties, theories that undermine the social and moral peace of our people, or political fanaticisms or fetishes that cannot flourish under the sky of the Americas. As representative of a country that, while liberal and hospitable, has never ceased to be Argentine, I have the right to make these statements, and I make them with greater emphasis than ever before at the present time, when the idea of justice appears to be the most disputed idea of all. . . .

American solidarity cannot have today the same content as in the beginning. By a phenomenon common to all living organisms, each of our countries has been accentuating its own individuality in the course of its evolution, through a thousand vicissitudes inseparable from growth, but always within the American framework that holds us all and makes us all

brothers. Both history and geography impose on us Latin nations of this continent a spiritual unity based on our ties with the same mother country and its culture and on the fact that we are neighbors. But this naturally has more weight between contiguous countries.

Both history and geography bind us also to the United States, whose policy was a safeguard for the first steps of our countries and whose friendship, today embodied in the noble figure of President Roosevelt, is a still further guarantee for each one of us. But Argentina believes that each American country, with its own unmistakable identity, should develop its own policy, without forgetting, however, our great continental solidarity or the natural pressure of reciprocal interests for geographical reasons. . . .

. . . our continental solidarity must not exclude that which unites us with the rest of humanity, and we cannot remain aloof from what happens outside America. Argentina never has done so and never will do so, not only because of economic reasons but also because of historical and sentimental obligations.

I believe, gentlemen, that, if we apply Alberdi's standard of opportuneness, the most important thing for us to do at this moment is to proclaim from this tribune, with greater firmness than ever before, the union of the American countries, bound by love of their institutions, marching in absolute equality with the same faith along parallel roads, with heads up and clear vision, resolved to preserve unharmed their moral and material integrity in the face of all contingencies, regardless of what they are or whence they come.

Let us make our own Montesquieu's thought: "Injustice done to one is a threat to all." Instead of a selfish, passive attitude toward evil, let us adopt a plan for

effective but free, sovereign, and spontaneous cooperation, serving the good of our America and of the world.

JOSÉ MARÍA CANTILLO,
Argentine Minister of Foreign Affairs.

IV

America continues united and vigilant in the safeguarding of our common interests, in the defense of peace, and in co-operative efforts to maintain throughout the world the same principles on which the fraternal policy of this continent is based. . . .

Our most important problem is to guarantee peace, because peace is the most precious gift granted to nations and to individuals. It is for peace that we are striving. It is for peace that in these Conferences of American States we have created and multiplied juridical instruments by which all conflicts that may arise between nations can be settled without recourse to force.

On our continent peace is not a Utopia or a dream shattered by the reality of recourse to violence and to force that in the past, and even in our time, has often been adopted as an instrument of national policy in other parts of the world.

In America peace is imposed by our geography and by the principles on which our countries were founded. Our foremost duty is, then, to unite in order to establish peace on the basis of justice, a basis which guarantees its preservation.

Let us do this with sincerity and devotion, as men comply with a sacred duty or the commands of conscience.

However we may phrase our pledge to defend peace, the most essential thing is that we fulfill it loyally and that every day we strengthen our solidarity in the maintenance of principles and our union in the face of common dangers.

I believe that the work of the Eighth

International Conference of American States will help invigorate the bonds of union already existing between the American nations and help clear the political atmosphere in other parts of the world, now charged with apprehension and insecurity. . . .

The various statements reaffirming American solidarity that were offered by delegations to this Conference contained no basic disagreements, only slight differences in phraseology. Fundamentally they were all similar, being grounded on the two historical concepts emanating from our political philosophy that have guided the action of our governments since first we took our place in the family of nations: Indissoluble solidarity and mutual assistance.

AFRANIO DE MELLO FRANCO,
Chairman of the Brazilian Delegation.

V

"Collaboration", let us recall (with one of our historians), is a word beloved by Haitians, who early learned to practice international cooperation, "Pan American solidarity."

Just as geographically our country is situated where the main lines of the Antilles cross, in the center of the Americas, so historically our green and sunny isle has been the meeting place on this continent of the three great contemporary cultures—Spanish, French, and Anglo-Saxon.

Although the Haitians are still faithful to the French culture that has surrounded them from their cradle, they are convinced that the cooperative efforts of these three great humane cultures, together with that of Portugal, is necessary to the progress of our Americas, united in the single objective of peace and harmony.

If we wish to put a brotherly Pan Americanism into practice, to form a strong and progressive America, it will not be by opposing it to groups of legiti-

mate interests formed elsewhere either now or in the future, because we know that a happy international life can be obtained only by peace among nations and brotherhood among men.

But let it be known—and the words spoken from this platform by the Secretary of State of the United States leave no possible doubt in this respect—that we should rise *en masse* to defend, if some day they should be threatened, the higher principles of liberty, equality, and justice for which we have fought in the past, and which we intend to preserve intact as the common patrimony of our American Republics.

LÉON ALFRED,
Chairman of the Delegation of Haiti.

VI

No one familiar with the history of the continent can fail to measure the steady progress which has been made through the years. More than a century ago the watchword of the continent was independence. A dream, which had grown for a generation, flowered at last, and gave birth to the twenty-one nations here represented, pledged to liberty for the individual and to popular government.

These American Republics emerged as the great triumph of human rights, a conquest by idealists of this hemisphere. But the task was not finished. In a second stage there was forged the conception of equality of American States, their absolute right as independent nations, irrespective of military strength, territorial extent, or of number of population, to speak with equal voice.

Yet even juridic equality, great though it is as a buttress for States, was not enough. There remained to be strengthened the bond of friendship, of understanding and of fair dealing—the bond of good neighborhood.

First we became free; then we acknowledged ourselves equal; then we united in common friendship. . . .

The world situation today gives too much evidence of economic aggression and of the use of economic measures as the instruments of political policy. We have reaffirmed our purpose to guide our commercial relationships by the principle of equal treatment and by the reduction of obstacles to trade, in order to facilitate and expand the exchange of goods, principles to which we should like to give universal application.

In our Conference we have demonstrated our unshakable determination to respect the integrity of individuals and of States, to uphold the sanctity of the pledged word and to make needed changes through the orderly process of consultation in a spirit of mutual accommodation. . . .

Let us not minimize the value of the accomplishments of this Conference. The advance made is broad and constructive. Our deliberations have added to our common continental faith new substantive principles and new procedure of consultation.

These deliberations took form in the declaration in this Conference of the principles of the solidarity of America,—the Declaration of Lima. Closely associated with it are two vigorous resolutions, one offering sweeping condemnation of racial and religious bigotry and intolerance everywhere; the other condemning in this hemisphere the collective political activity of groups of aliens. . . .

We have also reaffirmed in this Conference our faith in peace and justice for all men by our declaration of a program of principles indispensable to world order and peace. These we proclaim, support and recommend to all nations.

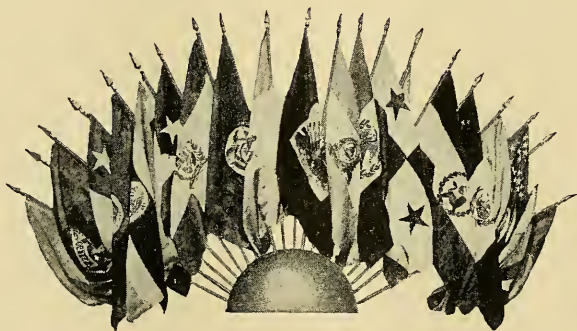
If there be any who have not grasped

the achievements of this Conference let me again ask them to lift up their eyes and look at the political turmoil, strife, and poverty which curse so many parts of the world and which threaten to cast their baneful influence over the Continent of the Americas and then to look by way of contrast at the solidarity, unity and peaceful objectives proclaimed by the Conference. . . .

All of us reach out, I know, towards peaceful and fruitful relations with all the rest of the world. Each of us has lines of sympathy and interest that traverse the globe more finely than the lines of latitude and longitude. Our bonds are strong with all who seek peaceful friendship and respect those principles of democracy, tolerance and equality by which we live. The principles of conduct which we have adopted and are carrying out in our re-

lationships with each other are equally open as a basis of relationship with all other countries. It cannot be fairly said that we are trying to shut ourselves off in a hemisphere of our own; any such effort would be futile. But it can be fairly said that the principles of conduct upon which the countries of this hemisphere have chosen to stand firm are so broad and essential that all the world may also stand upon them. Speaking for my country, we seek universal recognition and support for them. Were they adopted over all the world, a great fear would end. The young would see their future with more certainty and significance. The old would see their lives with more peaceful satisfaction.

CORDELL HULL,
*Secretary of State and Chairman of the
Delegation of the United States.*



The Adjournment of the Chaco Peace Conference

THE CHACO PEACE CONFERENCE, which convened in Buenos Aires on July 1, 1935, adjourned permanently on January 23, 1939, after the completion of its work.¹

The Conference was composed of representatives of Bolivia and Paraguay, the two parties to the Chaco controversy, and of six mediatory nations: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, the United States, and Uruguay. On June 12, 1935, Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, and Uruguay had suggested a truce between Bolivia and Paraguay, which signed a protocol, effective two days later, providing for the cessation of hostilities. The Conference began its duties shortly thereafter. The work of the Conference was crowned with success on July 21, 1938, when the Treaty of Peace, Friendship and Boundaries signed by Bolivia and Paraguay was signed. In compliance with the stipulations of that pact, the definitive boundary line was fixed in an award announced on October 10, 1938, and on December 28 representatives of the two countries concerned in the conflict signed at Villa Montes an act declaring that the principal provisions had been fulfilled.

The resolution of closure, according to the translation published by the Department of State of the United States, is as follows:

WHEREAS:

Clause 3 of Article I of the Peace Protocol of June 12, 1935 conditioned the closure of the Peace Conference to the definitive concertation between Bolivia and Paraguay of the settlement of the fundamental question of the Chaco;

This condition has been fully satisfied in the

¹ See *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, August, September, and November 1938.

Treaty of Peace, Friendship and Boundaries of July 21, 1938; by the arbitral award made on October 10, last past; by the Act signed at Villa Montes on December 28 last, by the representatives of Bolivia and Paraguay, in which the High Parties have expressly declared the fulfillment by the High Parties of the said award in its principal aspects;

The Mixed Commission charged with applying on the ground and marking the dividing line traced by the arbitral award, constituted in accordance with Article 5 of the Treaty of Peace, Friendship and Boundaries of July 21, 1938, is doing its work normally;

The questions referring to the exchange and repatriation of prisoners and responsibilities of the war have been satisfactorily resolved by the Protocolized Act of January 21, 1936 and the Treaty of Peace, Friendship and Boundaries of July 21, 1938;

The same Treaty of Peace, Friendship and Boundaries in its Articles 7 and 8, in accordance with clauses 5 and 6 of Article I of the Peace Protocol of June 12, 1935, has contemplated the commercial and transit relations of both countries and established bases for the system which must serve for their greater development, in accordance with the friendly interest of the mediatory countries for the future of the two nations today reconciled demonstrated by commercial negotiations concluded or in process between Bolivia and Paraguay and neighboring countries; without prejudice that the said system may be amplified later through negotiations between the foreign offices of the mediatory countries which consider it expedient and the foreign offices of Bolivia and Paraguay;

The diplomatic relations between the two High Parties have been definitively renewed;

THE PEACE CONFERENCE RESOLVES:

To declare that it has fulfilled the objective of its convocation; and declares its functions ended with this resolution of closure which will be communicated to the High Parties and the mediatory Governments.

To thank the Argentine Government and especially H. E. President Roberto M. Ortiz, for the hospitality given to its deliberations and his

constant and efficacious cooperation for the success of its work.

Likewise to thank Their Excellencies, the Presidents and the Governments of the Republics of Brazil, Chile, United States of America, Peru and Uruguay for their worthy collaboration, as well as the Governments and Their Excellencies the Presidents of Bolivia and Paraguay for the lofty spirit shown during the negotiations.

In faith of which, they sign and seal the present document in the place and date above indicated.

The resolution was signed by Dr. José María Cantilo, Minister for Foreign Affairs of Argentina and chairman of the Conference; Dr. Enrique Finot, Bolivia; Dr. Efraím Cardozo, Paraguay; Dr. Protasio Baptista Gonçalves, Brazil; Allen Haden, the United States; Dr. Pedro Manini Ríos and Dr. Eugenio Martínez Thedy, Uruguay; Dr. Luis Barros Borgoño, Chile; and Dr. Felipe Barreda Laos and Dr. Luis Fernán Cisneros, Peru.

After the Conference had adjourned Dr. Cantilo sent the following telegram to President Roosevelt, and similar messages to the Presidents of the other participating nations:

Buenos Aires

His Excellency, THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,

Washington.

I have the honor to communicate to Your Excellency that the Peace Conference assembled with delegates of the parties today concluded its work, after having fulfilled the mission of its letter of convocation. It is likewise a pleasure for me to communicate to Your Excellency that at that session it was voted to thank the President and his Government for the valuable cooperation rendered toward the success of work for peace. I repeat to you the assurances of my very high and distinguished consideration.

(Signed) JOSÉ MARÍA CANTILO

Chairman of the Peace Conference



Practical Pan Americanism

The First Inter-American Travel Congress and the Latin American Good Will Tour

JOSÉ TERCERO

Chief, Travel Division of the Pan American Union

It is most timely to reaffirm here the importance of international travel and to urge its promotion to the utmost. Travel is, in fact, the only perfect international transaction, since in exchange for money a country exports only the impressions it has made on the traveler.

I cannot find words to stress sufficiently the great cultural advantages resulting from the direct and stimulating action of intellectual comparisons and soul-stirring emotions. There is at present no better means than travel for promoting a better understanding among the American nations.

LUIS LÓPEZ DE MESA,

Minister for Foreign Affairs of Colombia.

AMONG the numerous ceremonies with which the Americas will observe Pan American Day in 1939, few will have the importance and practical significance of the First Inter-American Travel Conference, which will meet in San Francisco, California, April 14–21.¹ The Dominion of Canada accepted a special invitation issued to the government and to private travel interests, so that all American countries will be represented in the San Francisco meeting, whose opening session will coincide with special festivities prepared by the Golden Gate International Exposition to commemorate Pan American Day.

The organizing committee has sent the final program and regulations of the Congress to all official and private interests participating in the first travel conference of the New World. The Pan American Union, moreover, in view of the importance given to the conference throughout

the continent, has prepared and published a special manual for delegates, containing the antecedents of the conference and pertinent documents on the various topics of the program.

The final program has been divided into six sections, to be considered by the respective committees to be appointed when the conference meets. In drafting the program, strict attention was given to the policy outlined when the preliminary program was transmitted to all tourist circles in America—that is, to give official and private organizations directly interested in or affected by tourist travel an opportunity to express themselves both on the problems to be discussed and on their relative position on the final program.

The program, therefore, is the result of group effort and represents the opinion of the governments, private organizations, and individual experts of the twenty-one American Republics and the Dominion of Canada. The following paragraphs will outline some of the more important as-

¹ For the origin and organization of the Conference, see the BULLETIN, January 1938, p. 43, and August 1938, p. 465.



Photograph by Roberts and Roberts

"THE EVENING STAR," GOLDEN GATE INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION

The First Inter-American Travel Congress will open at San Francisco on Pan American Day, April 14, under the joint auspices of the Exposition directors and the Pan American Union.

pects of this document, with special reference to definite plans and recommendations, which will permit the delegates to discuss the best way of concentrating official, private, and joint activities on the promotion of inter-American tourist travel.

Official Action

The most important of the travel problems for which a solution must be found in the field of official action is the simplification of passport and immigration requirements. These problems have been considered by several Pan American conferences, especially during the last ten years. All conferences have without exception recognized the need for simplifying such requirements and have expressly recommended to all American nations the adoption of the necessary measures for obtaining this desideratum, yet their recommendations have not led to any appreciable simplification, considering America as a whole.

Several countries have simplified their requirements considerably, and some of them have definitely settled the problem. Of others, however, this is not true and the very fact that each new Pan American conference considers these problems and repeats earlier recommendations shows that there is still much to be done before the current of tourist travel can move freely between the nations of America, at least as far as passport and immigration requirements are concerned. One of the most hopeful steps taken in this direction was the signing of the Pan American Tourist Passport Convention at the Pan American Commercial Conference that met at Buenos Aires in June 1935.

At the time of writing this article, however, the convention had been ratified only by Uruguay. Because of the inevitable slowness with which the ratification of

international conventions proceeds, it has been suggested that, in cases where present conditions present a real obstacle to promoting tourist travel, such conditions could be speedily changed by bilateral agreements, to take effect by a simple exchange of notes between the two countries parties to the agreement. The Congress will consider various proposals recommending the adoption of tourist travel cards through bilateral agreements until the Buenos Aires convention has been ratified by all signatory countries.

Other important topics falling within the sphere of official action are related to the improvement of transportation in the Americas. With respect to maritime transportation, it has been asserted among tourist agencies in both hemispheres that most of the steamship passenger rates between the various American countries are extremely high and therefore are an obstacle to the increase of tourist travel. In considering this matter, the delegates will have an opportunity not only to examine the problem in general terms but also to study the relation between passenger rates and port and other similar charges at present in force.

This study may help determine whether the interested governments, in applying a general policy of encouraging tourist travel to their shores, will be able to do anything about reducing passenger rates, either by granting special concessions to regular passenger carriers, in the form of reduced port charges in proportion to the number of tourists landed each trip, or by other pertinent measures. It has been suggested that similar concessions be adopted in the case of seasonal passenger boats transporting no freight (excursion or cruise boats), whose revenue depends exclusively on the number of excursionists they carry on each voyage. The concessions suggested varied from a considerable

reduction in the ordinary port fees to their complete elimination.

Reflecting the unanimous desire of the American governments for still closer relations, numerous proposals from different parts of America have been received suggesting that the Congress recommend to the air and steamship companies linking the nations of America the adoption of special reduced rates to facilitate travel by professors, teachers, and students. This has already been done by several lines, as mentioned on p. 164. Several proposals suggested inter-American tours by groups of athletes or artists, and by cultural, scientific, and technical missions whose journeys would be free from any taint of commercialism.

As for land communication, in no far distant day the Americas will unquestionably be connected by a vast network of

highways traveled by motorists in increasing numbers. The experience of neighboring countries in the various regions of the continent where international motoring has come to occupy a place in the general tourist travel movement can serve as a basis for the consideration of fundamental principles governing the control of automobile traffic across international boundaries, as well as of methods to encourage these travel currents while protecting the financial and other interests of the countries concerned.

The adoption of adequate standards for hotels and other lodging places, an increase in their number, and other means of stimulating American travel also fall within the field of official action. Of special interest to those countries whose tourist attractions are beginning to be known to the inter-American traveler will



Courtesy of Carnegie Institution

MAYA RUINS AT CHICHÉN-ITZÁ, MEXICO

The Mayas, one of the most highly civilized peoples inhabiting America before Columbus discovered it, left imposing remains in Mexico and Central America.



Photograph by William B. Larsen

A MODERN OFFICE BUILDING, MEXICO CITY

Thousands of Americans motor every year over the fine highway from Laredo, Texas, to the handsome capital of the neighboring Republic.

be the determination of standards for accommodations on a scale small at first but capable of expansion.

To obtain the best possible facilities for circulating descriptive matter concerning the American nations should be one of the immediate aims of any program seeking the encouragement of inter-American tourist travel. The granting of special customs treatment for this material, when sent from one country to another, will, like the simplification of passport and immigration regulations, undoubtedly be recommended to the American governments by the congress.

Joint Action

The congress will consider several important plans whose execution will require joint action by governments and by private organizations. These plans in general include the establishment of National Tourist Councils in each of the American countries, the creation of regional federations to supplement the international action of the councils, and the grouping of these federations in an organization that will unite and coordinate inter-American activities.

The experience acquired by the chief tourist centers of the world over many



Courtesy of Cuban National Tourist Commission

SANTA CLARA CONVENT, HABANA

The Cubans cherish here the first tile-roofed houses erected in Habana, a city now more than four hundred years old.

years has led to universal acceptance of the fact that uncoordinated, scattered efforts of official and private entities for the promotion and development of tourist travel, both within and without national territory, not only are highly inefficient in obtaining practical results but also invariably bring about an unnecessary duplication of effort and a tremendous waste of funds which, if concentrated in a central agency, would obtain better results much more economically.

Tourist travel, as one of the most important sources of revenue in national economy, unquestionably provides direct benefits to a great number of private entities and individuals. For this reason

it is entirely justifiable not only that such entities should be adequately represented in the central agency in charge of the coordination and development of all activities to promote tourist travel on a national scale, but also that they should contribute financially to its activities. The contribution from national and local governments can also be justified by virtue of the increase in public revenues due, directly or indirectly, to tourist travel.

Because of certain geographical peculiarities, the western hemisphere may be divided into at least four well-defined regions presenting problems *sui generis* requiring special treatment. It has been suggested as one of the means for the

progressive promotion of inter-American tourist travel that the nations included in such areas follow the example of the South American Republics and establish their own tourist travel federations. The following groups seem the most logical:

1. South American Tourist Federation (already established): Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela.
2. Central American Federation: Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama.
3. Antillean Federation: Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands.
4. North American Federation: Canada, Mexico, and the United States, including Alaska.

Private Action

As regards proposals made in the field of private action, mention should be made of

three important plans to be considered by the Congress, dealing with the establishment of closer inter-American relations between automobile clubs, travel agencies, and hotel associations.

The importance of automobile clubs in stimulating travel is universally recognized. The progress of highway construction in the Americas and the zeal with which most of the American nations are expanding their highway programs show unquestionably that the near future will see a rising tide, and eventually a flood, of automobile travel in the Americas. This traffic is already a very important factor in international tourist travel between various neighboring nations on the continent, as for instance the United States, Canada, and Mexico. The need for uniting existing auto-



LUNCHING OUTDOORS AT CIUDAD TRUJILLO

The Dominican Republic, like other Caribbean countries, offers the pleasures of outdoor life when winter is prevailing in the United States.

mobile clubs and associations in an inter-American federation is already evident.

In contrast to the situation now existing with respect to tourist facilities in non-American regions, the great majority of the travel agencies on this continent have to overcome great obstacles in marketing inter-American tourist travel because they lack accurate and up-to-date information as well as descriptive and publicity material concerning the other countries. The impossibility of giving their clients exact information on the country or countries it is planned to visit often leads many travel agents to divert travel currents outside the inter-American field. The absence of direct contact between the agent who serves the individual traveler and the tourist organization whose services this

traveler will use in the country or countries included in his itinerary is one of the matters retarding the development of inter-American tourist travel, and therefore requiring immediate action.¹ Several preliminary proposals have already been presented to the congress with the principal aim of facilitating the establishment and maintenance of such contact.

In keeping with the forward-looking attitude already noted in many fields of inter-American activities, the hotel keepers of the Americas are now seeking practical means for establishing cooperative relations with one another. The various special proposals dealing with this matter that

¹ Since this article was written, the American Express Company has announced that it is opening offices in Argentina, Brazil, and Chile.—EDITOR.



Courtesy of Guatemalan Legation, Guatemala

LAKE ATITLÁN, GUATEMALA

A modern capital, comfortable accommodations, impressive scenery, and picturesque Indians dressed in bright hand-woven garments make Guatemala more and more popular with tourists.



Photograph by Juan Avilán

PATIO OF THE CAPITOL, CARACAS

Venezuela's capital, 3,000 feet above the sea, is reached by a magnificent drive of 22 miles from the port of La Guaira. Surrounded by beautiful mountains, Caracas enjoys a delightful climate and offers the visitor the interest of historic sites, the pleasures of fine country clubs, and the spectacle of a city making rapid social and material progress.

have been presented show that the hotel keepers of the western hemisphere intend to take advantage of the San Francisco convention to lay a foundation for closer co-operative relations through the establishment of an inter-American organization in which they will work jointly for their common good.

Special Topics

The delegates to the San Francisco meeting will have an opportunity to discuss various special topics of real importance in the adequate promotion of inter-American tourist travel. Among these mention should be made of the study of the most modern methods of tourist propaganda, the safeguarding of the cultural values of America, and the development and encouragement of athletics and sports.

Modern tourist travel has become a

highly specialized industry. In view of its multiple aspects, promotion should follow the lines adopted by other enterprises devoted to the sale of constantly improving products and services. Travel has to be advertised and kept before the eye of the potential purchaser. This constitutes a problem to be faced aggressively and competently.

The congress will make a valuable contribution to future programs for developing tourist travel, both national and international, by studying the latest methods now in use; analyzing the results obtained in competing regions by their publicity and propaganda campaigns; and defining the standards and practices that may be considered adequate as well as those considered inadequate, unnecessary, or extravagant, and as such to be avoided. The important questions of cooperation



Photograph by William B. Larsen

FLYING DOWN TO RIO

Air travel to Latin America is increasingly popular with travelers who are pressed for time. Rio de Janeiro's land and sea airport is only five minutes from the heart of the city.



THE ANDES

Stretching more than 4,000 miles along the Pacific Coast of South America, the mighty Andes raise their magnificent peaks in seven countries.

instead of rivalry, coordination instead of scattered efforts, and combined resources instead of expensive duplication will be studied in all their aspects by the congress.

In several nations or in certain regions within a single nation, the tourist travel industry has become the most important economic factor, frequently constituting the chief source of revenue, of labor, and of prosperity. At the same time travel currents have served to hasten the disappearance of dangerous prejudices, to replace antipathy and antagonism by sympathy and good understanding, to level the barriers of sectional rivalry, to unify national conscience, and to promote good will between nations.

The promotion of this industry should be

eagerly sought by governments and by individual citizens, but its economic aspects should not be permitted to befog its less tangible but more lasting values. No economic advantage, no matter how great, can justify a nation's loss of individuality and of its cultural heritage.

Delegates to the Congress will inevitably give careful consideration to the cultural aspects of inter-American tourist travel.

The encouragement of sports and athletics as tourist attractions has for many years been given special attention in the chief tourist centers of the world. Many of them, including the most famous, try to attract the traveler exclusively by virtue of their facilities for sports. The national and international importance of these

topics is undeniable. The delegates to the San Francisco congress will have an opportunity to render valuable service to the development of inter-American sports and athletics through recommendations suggesting suitable means by which the American nations may promote these activities on a national or international scale.

The First Inter-American Travel Congress can make an extremely valuable contribution to the promotion of inter-American travel and to the establishment of closer relations between the American nations if the delegates give whole-hearted support and encouragement to all practical and workable plans to stimulate the holding of competitive sports and inter-American Olympic games. The San Francisco meeting offers, therefore, an opportunity to establish the basis for permanent activities of great future promise.

Latin American Good Will Tour of the United States

Final arrangements are being made for an extensive good will tour of the United States by a large group of representatives of Latin American professional, commercial, cultural, and social circles. The group will tour the country from one end to the other, visiting the two great expositions in San Francisco and New York, Washington, and the principal commercial and industrial cities, as well as national parks and tourist centers whose natural beauty has made them justly famous throughout the world.

If this were merely a tourist excursion the Latin American tour would not be unusual and would have no special significance. The importance of the tour lies both in the aims of those originating the idea and in the cordial welcome awaiting the group from citizens of the United States living in cities included in the itinerary.

The idea was originally sponsored by the Argentine Touring Club, an organization well known for its activities in promoting closer relations between the American countries by means of the cordial contacts and personal relations created by intelligent tourist travel.

The calling of the First Inter-American Travel Congress provided the opportunity for giving expression to the idea of a tour of the United States. This assembly, in which a large group of representatives of the American nations will meet for the first time with the single purpose of laying the foundations for concerted encouragement of tourist travel in the New World, and the two great expositions in San Francisco and New York were the factors that combined to make it possible to carry out a plan that it would have been very difficult to realize under other circumstances.

At first the plan was limited to organizing a group of Argentines, but when the idea became known in other Latin-American countries it was found, significantly enough, that similar plans were already under consideration there.

When the task of organizing the First Inter-American Travel Congress was begun under the joint auspices of the directors of the San Francisco Exposition and the Pan American Union, the Travel Division of the latter had the good fortune not only to learn of the Argentine plan at the very beginning but also to take an active part in carrying out the idea, at the request of the Argentines.

The entire party will begin the tour in San Francisco, where the various contingents will gather while the First Inter-American Travel Congress is being held. At the close of its sessions, after the group has visited the great California exposition, it will leave, in company with many of the delegates to the congress, for Los



Courtesy of New York World's Fair 1939

THE NEW YORK WORLD'S FAIR

The Latin American Good Will Tour of the United States will begin at San Francisco and end at the New York World's Fair, after stops at other cities and points of interest in the United States.

Angeles, visiting en route the Yosemite National Park and the forest of sequoias known as Mariposa Grove.

Following in reverse the trail of the migrations from the east to the Pacific, the group will proceed to Salt Lake City, cross the Rockies and the great central plains and arrive in Chicago. After visiting Detroit, the party will see Niagara Falls and go on to Washington. Of special interest and significance will be the visit of the group to this city as well as to historic Philadelphia. With a stay in New York and sightseeing at the exposition there, the excursion will come to an end.

As a result of the activities incident to the organization of the tour it seems pertinent to make some observations that should be of interest to readers of the BULLETIN.

The most important has to do with the spirit of sincere cordiality felt by the people of the United States toward their Latin-American neighbors. The seeds of good will and greater understanding sown by

the country's leaders especially during the last six years, have fallen on fertile soil, and are bringing forth a harvest of great importance especially at this period in the life of the Americas.

On the other hand, the interest and enthusiasm shown in Latin America in making up this Good Will Embassy indicates the existence of a like friendliness in the rest of the continent.

The second observation, which will be fully confirmed after the tour has ended, is that tourist travel, independent of its economic and cultural aspects, is one of the most efficacious means for breaching the gap between good relations of governments and understanding, sympathy, and solidarity between peoples and individuals.

There is now talk of organizing similar groups in the United States to go to Latin America to return this visit from their neighbors. The Latin American tour might well, therefore, constitute the beginning of organized travel between the nations of the western hemisphere.



The Peace Machinery of the American Continent

Inter-American Peace Treaties

WILLIAM SANDERS

Chief of the Juridical Division, Pan American Union

ONE of the strongest and most characteristic traditions of the international life of the American Republics has been the idea that continental peace should and can be organized and maintained through the medium of the codification of public and private international law, uniformity of civil law, good offices, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, abolition of war, consultation, the renunciation of the right of conquest and the non-recognition of territories acquired by force.

This tradition is in our day the spirit that motivates Pan Americanism, a movement that reflects the conviction of the American States that the law of survival of nations does not necessarily require conflict, that, on the contrary, cooperation, respect for treaty obligations, and the peaceful settlement of conflicting points of view and interests is the true rule of survival in international life and the conduct most consonant with the best self interest of the State.

In order that this sentiment for peace may exert its full effect, the American countries have created the means by which once a conflict arises or a condition of international tension develops, the peaceful intentions of the parties immediately concerned as well as of all the American countries may find adequate expression. This instrumentality is the machinery created by the Pan American peace treaties.

These treaties are nine in number, namely:

1. Treaty to Avoid or Prevent Conflicts between the American States, of May 3, 1923 (Gondra Treaty);
2. General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation, of January 5, 1929;
3. General Treaty of Inter-American Arbitration and Additional Protocol of Progressive Arbitration, of January 5, 1929;
4. Additional Protocol to the General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation, of December 26, 1933;
5. Anti-War Treaty of Non-Aggression and Conciliation, of October 10, 1933;
6. Convention for the Maintenance, Preservation and Reestablishment of Peace, of December 23, 1936;
7. Convention to Coordinate, Extend and Assure the Fulfillment of the Existing Treaties between the American States, of December 23, 1936;
8. Inter-American Treaty on Good Offices and Mediation, of December 23, 1936;
9. Treaty on the Prevention of Controversies, of December 23, 1936.

There are, speaking in general terms, three fields or categories of treatment accorded an international conflict under the terms of the Pan American peace treaties. These are: 1) diplomatic negotiations; 2) bilateral settlement through mixed commissions; and 3) multilateral or general consultation and common action by third States. The description and explanation of these terms will be given as the respective procedure is considered below.

Diplomatic negotiations

All the treaties here considered provide that the procedure of peaceful settlement they envisage comes into force only after the parties have failed to come to an agreement regarding the conflict through diplomatic means. When this stage has been reached is not clearly defined, but it may be assumed to be when one or both of the parties to the dispute appeals to the procedure established in one of the treaties, or when the dispute becomes so acute that it endangers the peaceful relations of the parties and thus justifies the offer of good offices, mediation or conciliation by third States or by one of the Permanent Diplomatic Commissions of the Gondra Treaty.

On the border line between diplomatic negotiations and the second stage of peaceful settlement is the Treaty on the Prevention of Controversies, signed at Buenos Aires in 1936. Under its terms, the parties agree to establish permanent bilateral commissions empowered to study causes of future difficulties between the States and to propose measures for eliminating them. The treaty thus provides a means by which possible causes of future controversies may be dealt with before they have set in motion a chain of events leading to a rupture in the friendly relations of two States. This may be called the preventive as against the remedial procedure, which is characteristic of the other treaties.

On the border line also but more within the second category, which will be considered next, is found the Inter-American Treaty on Good Offices and Mediation, signed at Buenos Aires in 1936. Each of the parties agrees to send to the Pan American Union the names of two eminent citizens who constitute, together with those who have been nominated by the other parties to the treaty, a general panel of mediators. In the event of a dispute, the two States involved select from this

panel one person to act as mediator or chairman of the meetings of their representatives, appointed especially to negotiate regarding the controversy. The treaty does not stipulate the function of the mediator except that "the person selected shall name the place where, under his chairmanship, one duly authorized representative of each of the parties shall meet in order to seek a peaceful and equitable solution of the difference."

This procedure is an innovation, for historically good offices and mediation have been offered by third States; the conciliation convention of 1929 provides, for example, that the contracting parties are not precluded "from tendering their good offices or their mediation, jointly or severally, on their own motion or at the request of one or more of the parties to the controversy." This stipulation is similar to the provisions of Article 3 of the Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907 on the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes. In the case of good offices the third State merely attempts to bring the parties to agree to a settlement by negotiation or other means and does not take part in the negotiations. In the case of mediation, the third State actually participates in such negotiations, but it cannot, of course, constrain the parties to adopt its solution of the difficulty.

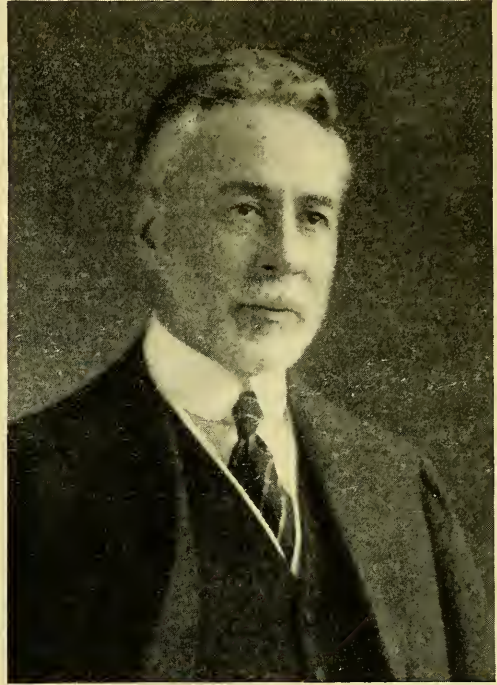
Bilateral settlement through mixed commissions

The chief characteristic of this category of the procedure of peaceful settlement in the Americas is the mixed commission charged with the task of investigating, conciliating or arbitrating an international dispute.

The mixed commission is generally composed of one or more representatives of the parties in dispute and of an impartial referee or umpire who is not a national of either of the parties. In investigation or

inquiry, the commission merely attempts to ascertain the actual facts in dispute, and reports its findings, leaving the parties free to act as their interests dictate. To express the idea in another form, the commission elucidates the contentions of the parties to aid them in future negotiations. In the case of conciliation, the powers and duties of the commission are enlarged. The method consists not merely of an investigation and elucidation of the case, but includes proposals for a settlement and a definite attempt to bring the parties to an agreement. The proposals of the commission are not, however, binding on the disputants. Arbitration, on the other hand, is a judicial function. It is "an impartial adjudication according to law, and before a tribunal of which at least a single member, who is commonly a national of a neutral State, acts as umpire" (Hyde), and implies an agreement to submit in good faith to the award. The distinction usually drawn between arbitration and judicial settlement is that while the former requires a special agreement to constitute the tribunal, the latter implies the submission of the dispute to an existing court of international justice.

The first of the Pan American treaties establishing mixed commissions is known as the Gondra Treaty, after its sponsor at the Fifth International Conference of American States. It provides that all controversies between two or more of the parties to the treaty which it is not possible to settle through diplomatic channels or arbitration and which do not affect constitutional provisions or questions already settled by other treaties, shall be investigated by a commission of five members especially appointed by the governments involved in the dispute. The controversies are submitted to the procedure of investigation under the circumstances mentioned whenever one or all the gov-



MANUEL GONDRA

Late Paraguayan statesman and author of the Gondra Treaty, signed at Santiago in 1923, which constituted the basis of procedure of investigation and conciliation in international disputes in the Americas.

ernments interested in the dispute apply for the convocation of the commission. The application is made to one of two permanent diplomatic commissions, established at Washington and Montevideo, and composed of the three American diplomatic representatives longest accredited to these capitals.

The treaty provides that the dispute is *ipso facto* suspended as soon as the permanent commission has made the respective notifications of the request for the constitution of the commission of investigation. While the procedure of investigation is under way, the parties bind themselves to refrain from all hostile acts or mobilization. The findings of the commission of investigation are considered as

CLOSING SESSION OF THE INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

On January 5, 1929, the delegates to the Conference signed a General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation, a General Treaty of Inter-American Arbitration, and a Protocol of Progressive Arbitration.



reports upon the facts in dispute, and are without the value or the force of judicial decisions or arbitral awards. After the report is submitted, six months are allowed for renewed negotiations between the parties, and at the end of that period the parties recover entire liberty of action. It should be recalled, however, that this liberty of action is circumscribed by the stipulations of other American treaties, to be discussed later, by which the parties undertake a variety of obligations for the peaceful settlement of international controversies.

There is a close similarity between the Gondra Treaty and the recommendations of the Hague Peace Conferences on the investigation of disputes and the Bryan "cooling off" treaties of 1913-14. The treaty also resembles a convention signed at the Central American Conference held at Washington in 1923. All are treaties of

inquiry or investigation, and the commissions they set up are fact-finding entities whose mission is to prepare a report which the parties may take into consideration in settling their disputes.

Pursuant to a resolution of the Sixth International Conference of American States, the Pan American Conference on Conciliation and Arbitration met at Washington in December 1928, and on January 5, 1929, signed a General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation, a General Treaty of Inter-American Arbitration and a Protocol of Progressive Arbitration. Chronologically these agreements represent the second stage in the organization of the peace structure of the Americas.

The conciliation convention is based structurally on the Gondra Treaty of 1923. The commissions established by this treaty are empowered by the convention to act as commissions of conciliation, while their



functions are broadened so that they may initiate the conciliation procedure of their own accord when it appears that there is a prospect of the disturbance of the peaceful relations between any of the contracting States. The convention also provides that while the parties to the dispute are constituting the *ad hoc* or special commission, the Permanent Diplomatic Commission of Washington or of Montevideo may undertake conciliation functions, at the request of one of the parties or of their own initiative. Once the procedure of conciliation is under way, it may not be interrupted, except by a direct settlement between the parties or by their agreement to accept absolutely the decision *ex aequo et bono* (on the basis of equity and justice) of an American Chief of State or to submit the controversy to arbitration or to an international court.

This convention is notable for three progressive principles: 1) it expands the field

of conciliation by including among the questions susceptible of conciliation all differences, whatever their nature; 2) it eliminates the customary reservations or exceptions of disputes not covered by the procedure; and 3) it gives the Permanent Diplomatic Commissions the right to initiate the procedure of conciliation.

We have seen that the commissions of inquiry of the Gondra Treaty of 1923, which became conciliation commissions as well by virtue of the convention of 1929, were *ad hoc* in character, that is, were constituted specially when a dispute arose. Aware of the weakness inherent in this type of commission, the Seventh International Conference of American States, held at Montevideo in 1933, adopted an Additional Protocol to the convention of 1929 which provides a procedure whereby these commissions may be made permanent. The parties communicate to the Pan American Union, when depositing their instruments of ratification of the Protocol, the names of the two commissioners whom they appoint according to the Gondra Treaty and the conciliation convention of 1929, and the Union instigates the selection of the fifth member by the four thus designated by any two countries. The selection so made is confirmed in a bilateral exchange of notes between the respective countries.

By the arbitration treaty of 1929 the parties agree to arbitrate all differences of an international character which may arise between them by virtue of a claim of right which it has not been possible to adjust by diplomacy and which are juridical in their nature by reason of being susceptible of decision by the application of the principles of law. This is the customary definition of juridical questions, that is, of questions susceptible of arbitration. The following are expressly included in the category of questions of a juridical charac-

ter: 1) The interpretation of a treaty; 2) any question of international law; 3) the existence of any fact which, if established, would constitute a breach of an international obligation; 4) the nature and extent of the reparation to be made for the breach of an international obligation. These are the same categories of questions set forth in the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice (Article 36), but they are found in the inter-American treaty of 1929, as in the General Act of Geneva of 1928, as furnishing examples of questions fit for legal decision, and not as rigid definitions limiting the sphere of arbitration.

Excluded from the scope of the treaty of 1929 are the following questions: 1) those which are within the domestic jurisdiction of any of the parties in dispute and are not controlled by international law, and 2) those which affect the interest or refer to the action of a State not a party to the treaty. The purpose of the peculiar phraseology of the first exception is plain: if some topic originally within the domestic jurisdiction—e. g., a customs tariff—has been brought into the international sphere—e. g., by a commercial treaty—it is a proper subject for arbitration. (See Advisory Opinion No. 4 of the Permanent Court of International Justice, the Tunis and Morocco Nationality Decrees.)

The arbitral tribunal is to be constituted in the following manner: Each party nominates two arbitrators, of whom only one may be a national of said party or selected from persons designated by the nominating State as members of the Court of Arbitration at the Hague. The other member may be of any other American nationality. In the event the arbitrators cannot agree on the fifth member, each party designates a non-American member of the Arbitration Court of the Hague, and these two select the fifth arbitrator, who

may be of any nationality other than that of a party involved in the dispute.

The usual *compromis* or special agreement is called for, which must define the subject matter of the dispute, fix the seat of the tribunal, establish the rules to be observed in the proceedings, etc. If the agreement is not reached within three months after the installation of the tribunal, it is formulated by the tribunal.

An Additional Protocol to the Arbitration Treaty provides that the parties may abandon any reservations they may have formulated, through the simple expedient of depositing an instrument evidencing that intention with the Department of State of the United States, which is the depository of the original instruments.

The Conference of Montevideo, which adopted the additional protocol on conciliation, also approved the Argentine Anti-War Treaty of Non-Aggression and Conciliation, which had already been signed by Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Paraguay and Uruguay. The other American Republics adhered subject to ratification. Nineteen American countries and a number of European States are now contracting parties.

The treaty is a connecting link between the second and third categories of the procedure of peaceful settlement established by the Pan American peace treaties. It belongs in the second category because it establishes a procedure of conciliation for all disputes, with the possible exception of four kinds specifically mentioned, that, like the conciliation convention of 1929, contemplates the constitution of special mixed commissions composed of five members. It departs from the latter in the following particulars:

1. In constituting the commission, each party names one national, and the other three members are designated by common agreement;
2. The parties may, at their own option when

ratifying the treaty, exclude four classes or categories of disputes from submission to the conciliation procedure.

3. There is no provision for the permanent diplomatic commissions;

4. The supreme court of any of the parties to the treaty may be designated by the States in dispute to act as a conciliation commission, if the parties prefer not to constitute the special commission;

5. The treaty is open to the adherence of non-American States.

The treaty belongs to the third category of American peace treaties because it contains provisions for the joint action of third States in the interest of maintaining the peace between any two or more of the parties, and also because it enunciates general principles of international conduct. Thus, it condemns wars of aggression; it provides that territorial disputes may not be settled by violence and that territorial acquisitions not obtained by pacific means shall not be recognized, and stipulates that in case of noncompliance with the obligations of the treaty, the other States agree to adopt in their character as neutrals a common and solidary attitude, to exercise the political, juridical, or economic means authorized by international law, and to bring the influence of public opinion to bear, but in no case to resort to intervention, either diplomatic or armed.

Multilateral procedure of consultation and common action by third States

In the treaties considered above, with the one exception noted, the procedure for the settlement of international disputes concerns only the parties involved in the controversy. The procedure from the beginning to its termination is in their hands. The remaining treaties are designed to give the other States of the Continent the opportunity and the authority to bring to bear upon the dispute all the force for peace that their united action can marshal.

Thus, the Convention for the Mainte-

nance, Preservation and Reestablishment of Peace, signed at Buenos Aires in 1936, provides that in the event of war or a virtual state of war between American States, the other American governments shall consult together "in order to exchange views and to seek, within the obligations resulting from the pacts above mentioned (the Briand-Kellogg Pact of 1928 and the Treaty of Non-Aggression and Conciliation of 1933) and from the standards of international morality, a method of peaceful collaboration." The same article also provides for consultation in the event of an international war outside the Americas which might menace the peace of the American Republics.

In the same manner, the Convention to Coordinate, Extend and Assure the Fulfillment of the Existing Treaties between the American States, also signed at Buenos Aires in 1936, reaffirms, as the name indicates, the stipulations of the other peace treaties and establishes certain general norms for the guidance of the other States of the Continent in the event a dispute reaches the stage of hostilities. There are two stages in the procedure set forth in the convention. The first provides for consultation among all the parties when a threat of war appears, and contains the stipulation that while the consultation is in progress, and for a period of not more than six months, the parties in dispute "will not have recourse to hostilities or take any military action whatever." The second stage ensues when hostilities break out, and for this contingency the parties agree to: 1) adopt a common attitude in their character as neutrals; 2) consult together, individually or jointly, to determine whether the hostilities constitute a state of war calling for the application of the provisions of the convention; 3) endeavor through consultation to adopt common measures tending to discourage or prevent

the spread or prolongation of hostilities. With this last object the States agree to "consider the imposition of prohibitions or restrictions on the sale or shipment of arms, munitions and implements of war, loans or other financial help to the States in conflict, in accordance with the municipal legislation of the High Contracting Parties." The obligations of the parties under the Covenant of the League of Nations or under other international agreements are, by express stipulation, not affected by the provisions of the convention.

This convention, like the preceding one, is complementary to existing peace treaties in the following particulars: 1) it reiterates the obligations contained in treaties now in force whereby differences between any two States, parties to such treaties, are to be settled through the procedures of investigation, conciliation, and arbitration; 2) it establishes the steps which States not parties to the dispute may take in order to aid in a peaceful settlement. This last point has two phases, namely: a) the measures which the States not involved in the dispute may take to aid in the peaceful settlement of the controversy while the disputants are attempting to solve their differences through peaceful means; b) the measures which the States not parties to the dispute may take after hostilities have broken out, that is, measures of neutrality designed to discourage or prevent the spread or prolongation of hostilities.

These last two conventions, accordingly, integrate the existing machinery of peace by reiterating the obligations existing between individual States and by meshing into this legal machinery the action of all the States of the Americas. They establish the legal basis upon which third States may act in a manner consistent with the criterion that any dispute between American States is the common concern of all the States of this hemisphere.

To summarize the foregoing, the various means available to the American States for dealing with a controversy are the following:

1. Diplomatic negotiations;
2. Preventive action (Treaty on the Prevention of Controversies);
3. Remedial action—bilateral:
 - a) Mediation and good offices (Inter-American Treaty on Good Offices and Mediation);
 - b) Investigation (Gondra Treaty);
 - c) Conciliation (Conciliation Convention of 1929 and the Treaty of Non-Aggression and Conciliation of 1933);
 - d) Arbitration (Arbitration Treaty of 1929);
- [4. Remedial action—multilateral:
 - a) Anti-War Treaty of Non-Aggression and Conciliation;
 - b) Convention for the Maintenance, Preservation and Reestablishment of Peace;
 - c) Convention to Coordinate, Extend and Assure the Fulfillment of the Existing Treaties between the American States.

While recognizing that the existing Pan American peace treaties are effective and that they represent great progress in the organization of peace, the American States are seeking the means by which they may be improved. The last three Pan American Conferences, held at Montevideo in 1933, at Buenos Aires in 1936 and at Lima in 1938, considered the problem of the improvement and coordination of the peace treaties mentioned in section II of this article, as part of a general topic, the pacific settlement of international disputes. In these discussions two general tendencies have developed. On the one hand there are those who believe that the weaknesses of the treaties should be cured through the medium of additional protocols, addressed to the specific task of remedying the deficiencies of these treaties. This was, for example, the approach adopted at the Seventh Conference at Montevideo in 1933, where the Additional Protocol to the Conciliation Convention of 1929 was

adopted for the purpose of giving a permanent character to the bilateral commissions of investigation and conciliation. In the same manner, proposals have been made seeking to improve the treaties by: 1) Strengthening the powers of the conciliation commissions to take measures which will lessen the possibility of hostilities while the procedure of conciliation is under way; 2) broadening the field of arbitration by stipulations that the parties may empower the tribunal to decide *ex aequo et bono* if the case is found to be political in character; 3) giving a permanent character to the arbitral tribunals; 4) eliminating the distinction between juridical and political questions, but stipulating expressly in the treaty the only categories of questions that may, at the option of the signatory, be excluded from arbitration; 5) providing that at the option of the parties an immediate reference may be made to the Permanent Court of International Justice rather than to the arbitration procedure; 6) establishing a continuous procedure of pacific settlement between conciliation and arbitration; 7) opening the Pan American treaties to the adherence of non-American States; etc.

On the other hand, the opinion is held by some governments that the various instrumentalities of peace should be con-

solidated, with the necessary improvements, in one organic instrument providing a continuous procedure, beginning with investigation, proceeding through conciliation and arbitration and ending in the submission of the dispute to the decision of a permanent inter-American court of international justice, if one of the earlier procedures does not end the controversy. An example of this approach is the Mexican Peace Code, submitted originally to the Seventh International Conference of American States, and considered later by the Conferences of Buenos Aires and Lima.

At the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, held at Buenos Aires in 1936, the Mexican Peace Code and various other proposals for the improvement of the peace treaties were referred to the Committee of Experts on the Codification of International Law with the request that it present its recommendations thereon to the Eighth Conference at Lima. The recommendations made to the latter Conference by the Committee, as well as other proposals of various delegations at Lima, have been referred to the Pan American Union, which is to classify them and send the result to the governments in order that they may reconsider the subject at the Ninth International Conference of American States at Bogotá in 1943.

Pan American Cooperation in Agriculture

PAUL R. KELBAUGH

Assistant Chief, Division of Agricultural Cooperation

WHAT AGENCIES EXIST to facilitate cooperation between agricultural entities in the American republics? For 11 years the Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union has devoted its increasingly active program to this single objective, but national and state departments of agriculture, diplomatic and consular representatives, universities and colleges of agriculture, agricultural experiment stations, associations of farmers and livestock breeders, these and all other organizations and individuals having something to offer to, or receive from, the agriculture of another country may, and often do, become agencies of this form of cooperation.

An attempt will be made to survey the broad front of inter-American cooperation in agriculture, and focus the spotlight briefly on some recent representative examples in this field of activity.

The Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union depends to a large extent upon its publications to anticipate the need for information, although a steady stream of requests calling for individual attention flows into its office. A series of pamphlets on agriculture has long been published in Spanish and Portuguese, and a comparatively new series on cooperatives is published in Spanish, Portuguese and English. Subjects treated recently in the former series have been rice cultivation, production of grasses and forage plants, cheese manu-

facture, tropical fruits, and cattle improvement in tropical America. In the latter series, recent subjects included cooperative study clubs, cooperative marketing of grains, cooperative sugar associations, educational methods for promoting cooperation, cooperatives in Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil, and a review of agricultural cooperation in Chile. These pamphlets are sent regularly to many addresses in the United States and Latin America, and to numerous persons who request particular publications. Many of the articles are reproduced in Latin American periodicals, thus greatly widening the circle of readers.

As these words are written, Mr. José L. Colom, the Chief of the Division of Agricultural Cooperation, is about to return from an official visit to the Ministry of Agriculture of Venezuela. He took with him a large consignment of trout eggs as well as a considerable collection of crop seeds and planting material for trial in that country. While there he was able to inspect many of the new projects of that Ministry, particularly those in which the Division was especially interested. On his return trip, he spent some time as guest of the Secretary of Agriculture of Cuba, making observations of work being done by that government and discussing questions pertaining to national and international agriculture. Unfortunately Mr. Colom did not return in time to permit the inclusion of his observations in this article.

In the three-year plan of national recon-

struction recently approved by the Congress of Venezuela, the development of agriculture plays a very important role. The Pan American Union was called upon to furnish suggestions and recommendations for use in preparing plans and in selecting some of the technical staff brought in from outside the country.

One of the useful functions of the Division of Agricultural Cooperation is to spread information in the countries of Latin America concerning means of controlling the plant and animal pests which are responsible for barring certain of their products from the markets of the United States. For example, the United States Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine is studying the subject of destroying the larvae of certain harmful fruit flies in Mexico and Puerto Rico, by subjecting the fruits from infested areas to refrigeration at a specified temperature for a certain number of days. The importance of this work may be seen in the fact that it is at present impossible to import into the United States several tropical or subtropical fruits such as chirimoyas, mangos, avocados and papayas from regions of Latin America infested with species of *Anastrepha*. At the request of the Agricultural Experiment Station of La Molina, Peru, the results of the work done by the above Bureau were sent to it last year by the Division of Agricultural Cooperation.

Several years ago Mr. Milton C. James, of the United States Bureau of Fisheries, was commissioned jointly by the governments of Bolivia and Peru to survey the fish resources of Lake Titicaca and to make recommendations for their improvement. As a result, the Peruvian-Bolivian Fish Hatchery, located in Peru near Lake Titicaca, has recently been completed. On January 27 of this year a large consignment of lake trout eggs, furnished by the United States Bureau of Fisheries, was

sent to this hatchery by boat from New York. The recently created Peruvian-Bolivian Fisheries Commission has engaged the services of an American expert, Mr. J. A. Smythe, to supervise this project and to conduct similar work in neighboring rivers and lakes.

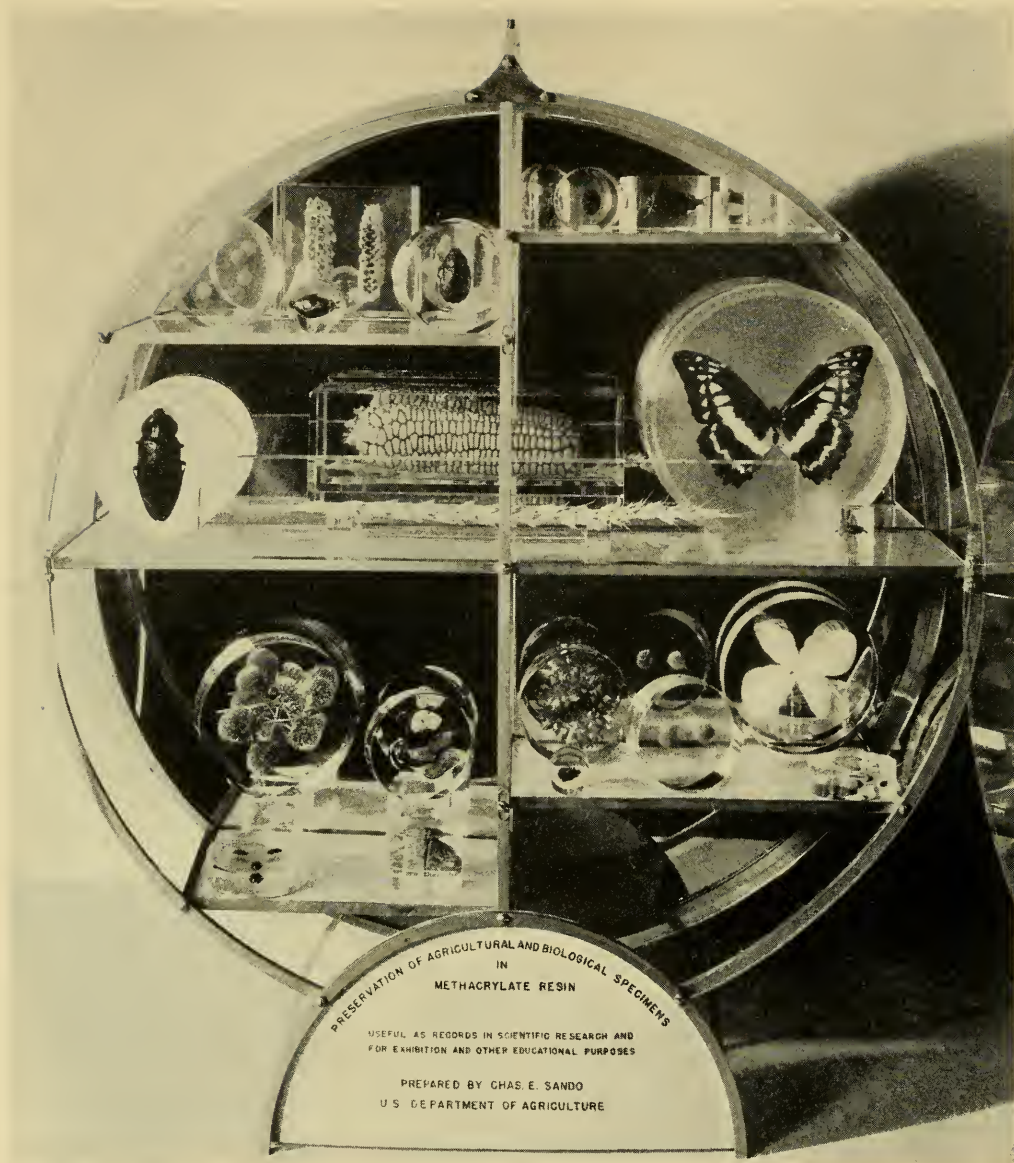
The Experimental Station at Arequipa, Peru, likewise recently imported 20,000 eggs of the river or brown trout (*Salmo fario*) by air plane from the Chilean



Courtesy United States Department of Agriculture

SHIPPING FOREIGN PLANTS

The use of a Wardian case is one method by which living plants from foreign countries come to the United States Department of Agriculture. The Office of Plant Exploration and Introduction of that Department has been collecting in recent years species of tomatoes, peanuts, tobacco, and potatoes in the countries of Latin America in an effort to improve domestic varieties.



Courtesy of C. E. Sando

BIOLOGICAL SPECIMENS EMBEDDED IN A TRANSPARENT PLASTIC

Among the specimens thus preserved by Dr. C. E. Sando, of the United States Department of Agriculture, is a remarkable collection of Peruvian corn, courteously supplied by the National Agrarian Society of Peru.

government hatcheries in Lautaro. After hatching and growing to suitable size, the fish will be released in the rivers of the Department of Arequipa. Subsequent importations are planned, until the streams of southern Peru are sufficiently stocked.

Two officials sent last year by the Ministry of Agriculture of Argentina to study tobacco growing and curing in the United States received from the Pan American Union suggestions as to suitable schools and experiment stations at which their time might be profitably spent. Both reported satisfaction with the courses that they took and the observations made under practical conditions.

Cooperating with the Legation of the Dominican Republic, the Pan American Union made arrangements for the purchase of about a dozen young purebred Holstein-Friesian bulls for use by the government of that Republic. Other animals were later bought by the same government, in cooperation with the Pan American Union and the United States Department of Agriculture.

An entity with which the Pan American Union has worked closely in recent years is the National Agrarian Society of Lima, Peru. At the present time Dr. F. F. Bibby, an expert in cotton insects, engaged in the United States by this society, is in Peru to study several insects causing particular damage to the cotton plantations. He was selected through joint consultation with the Pan American Union and the United States Department of Agriculture. Negotiations are at present under way between the Division of Agricultural Cooperation and a representative of the National Agrarian Society, sent to Washington for the purpose, looking to the employment of an American expert in cotton breeding.

By a similar arrangement, Mr. Harold Conkling of the California Department of

Public Works was given a contract by the National Agrarian Society to survey the underground water resources of the coastal area of Peru with a view to their use in irrigation. Working from March until June of last year, he made a reconnaissance of 18 representative river valleys of the approximately 50 along the entire coast. Up to this time, the pumping of well-water for irrigating sugarcane and cotton in Peru had been restricted to areas where there was insufficient winter run-off for irrigation by river water. It is felt that with some changes in cultural practice, supplementary irrigation from wells can be extended to rice, and in several valleys examined there are possibilities of the exclusive use of such water for all crops, if it is found profitable. Plans for future surveys were laid out by this expert, desirable revisions in the law relating to underground water were suggested, and a full report of the work was rendered by Mr. Conkling. The society took a most progressive step in thus investigating the use of underground water resources in its early stages, thus curtailing the possibility of mistakes in its future development.

A Mexican commission, headed by Sr. Francisco Vázquez del Mercado, an engineer and executive of the National Irrigation Commission of Mexico, arrived in Bolivia last January at the invitation of the government of that country to advise on an irrigation program. In recent years Mexico has built many dams, some very large and others small, thus regulating the supply of water for agriculture and making available for cultivation many thousands of acres of land.

As is well known, the present Administration in Washington strongly favors the strengthening of ties between the United States and the countries and people of Latin America. In a report issued No-



Courtesy of Harold Conkling

THE ICA VALLEY, COASTAL PERU

This is one of the valleys partially irrigated by water from deep wells. When properly watered, the soil produces rich crops of cotton, sugarcane, and other products.

vember 29, 1938, by the Inter-Departmental Committee on Cooperation with the American Republics, a suggested program calling for the expenditure of \$350,000 by the United States Department of Agriculture was included, among many far-reaching plans. It contained the following suggestions: Assignment of four new agricultural attachés (Mexico City, Habana, Rio de Janeiro, and Panama City); a survey of the forest resources of tropical American republics; a survey of soils, vegetation, climate and plant diseases in tropical areas, especially as these affect the production of rubber, quinine and other commodities not produced in the United States; establishment of a Tropical Forest Experiment Station in Puerto Rico, to serve as a research center for the Carib-

bean region; provision of facilities for training qualified Latin Americans in weather forecasting technique; loan of Department of Agriculture officials to the American Republics; cooperation of the Department of Agriculture with broadcasting companies in transmissions to Latin America; further assistance to the Pan American Highway as far south as Panama; and the translation and distribution in Latin America of certain publications of the Department. The execution of this program depends, of course, upon the appropriation by Congress of enabling funds.

On December 28 last the United States Maritime Commission announced that the American Republics Line (Moore-McCormack Company), the Grace Line, the



Courtesy of Harold Conkling

THE MACACANA DIVERSION DAM, ICA VALLEY, PERU

The National Agrarian Society of Peru engaged an expert in the United States to survey the underground water resources of the coastal area of Peru with a view to their use in irrigation.

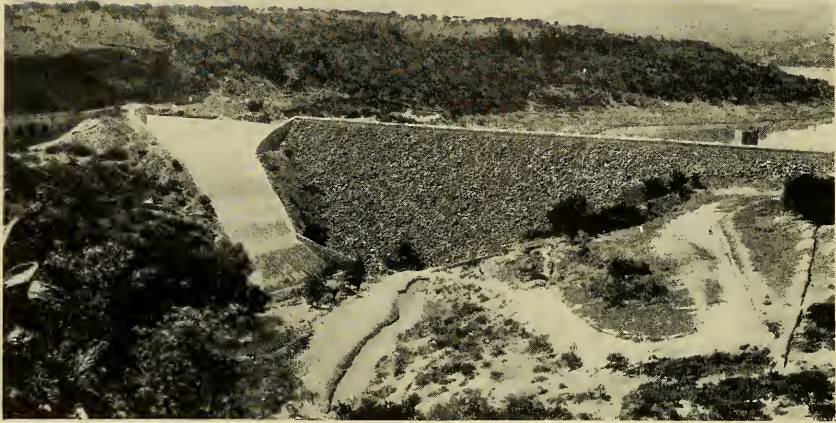
Furness Prince Line, and the Mississippi Shipping Company (Delta Line) have agreed to grant a 50 percent discount on the fares of students, teachers and professors using their ships between the United States and Latin America. Certain general and special requirements will be imposed by the companies before granting this reduction. This is expected to increase considerably the transfer of students and teachers of agriculture between the Americas, particularly of graduate students from Latin America wishing to study in the United States.

The Instituto Agrônômico at Campinas in the State of São Paulo, Brazil, is one of the finest research institutions of its kind. Several members of its staff have found it of interest to pursue advanced studies in

American universities. The last to return to Brazil was Dr. Ahmés P. Viégas, who took his Ph. D. at Cornell University in plant pathology.

On January 25 of this year the National Broadcasting Company began a weekly series of short-wave broadcasts in Spanish and Portuguese to Latin America over Stations N3XAL and N3XL, giving latest developments in agricultural research and experimentation in the United States. Opening talks covered such subjects as *Crops without Soil*, *Quick Freezing of Fresh Foods*, and *Can Insects be Controlled?* The programs have been presented under the auspices of the agricultural magazine *La Hacienda*.

The Argentine Rural Society has recently engaged the services of two entomol-



A MEXICAN IRRIGATION DAM

Because of the extensive experience of Mexico in irrigation, Bolivia requested the services of Mexican experts this year in planning an irrigation program. They arrived at La Paz in January.

ogists from Iowa State College to work with a local committee in mapping out a program for the control of insect pests of agriculture, with particular reference to locusts and grasshoppers. A tentative plan of action awaiting the two visiting experts included: (a) A study of the non-migratory locusts, with special reference to the species doing most damage to crops and native grasses; (b) tests with the different poisons that are giving good results in the United States and other countries; and (c) a comparison of the life history and control of the permanent and migratory species wherever this is found to be practicable.

As has already been shown, all acts of Pan American cooperation affecting agriculture do not have as one party the United States. On the contrary, such cooperation between Latin American

countries is facilitated by a common language and common boundaries, and is a matter of almost daily record. The following are some recent examples that have reached the writer's attention.

The meeting of the First South American Botanical Union, held in Rio de Janeiro in October 1938, brought together botanists from many countries of the southern continent, as well as others from the United States, Cuba, England and Germany, who were invited to send delegates. The results of research, often in plant diseases of economic importance, were set forth in many valuable papers.

It is expected that future meetings of the Union will take place every four years. Although South America has long been one of the world's leading botanical regions, and has been worked intensively both by citizens of its own republics and

by visitors from overseas, until now there has been no concerted effort to coordinate all the botanical work on the continent.

The stated objectives of the Union are: To intensify cooperation among all South American botanists, to arrange for common attack by research institutions and botanical gardens on common problems, to promote and regulate scientific expeditions, and to organize a systematic catalogue of all South American plants.

By presidential decree of October 11 of last year, the National School of Agriculture of Mexico was instructed to reserve three scholarships for Costa Rican students for the ensuing school year.

In 1938 the Faculty of Agronomy and Veterinary Science of Buenos Aires, in order to give active expression to its desire

for intellectual cooperation with its sister institution across the River Plate, invited the eminent agronomist Dr. Pedro Menéndez Lees, as representative of the College of Agriculture of the University of Montevideo, to give the first of a series of exchange lectures by outstanding authorities of the two institutions.

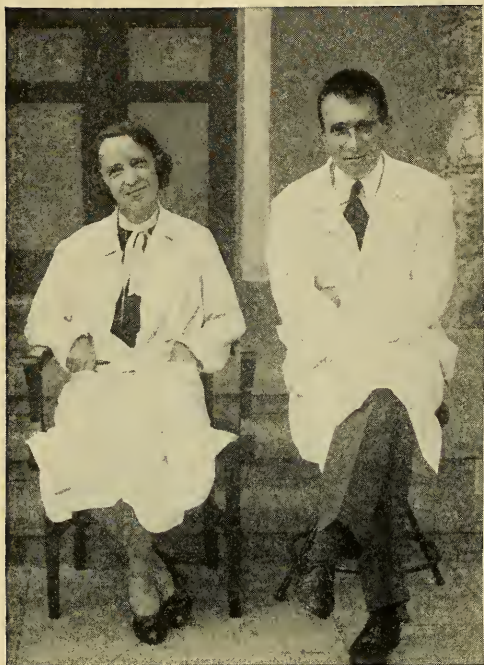
The Government of Colombia not long ago commissioned one of its veterinarians, Dr. Olimpo Arenas, to visit Chile, Argentina and Uruguay for the purpose of observing and studying all phases of the livestock industries of those countries. A graduate of the National University of Colombia and a captain in the Colombian Army, Dr. Arenas was cordially received wherever he went, and was able to report to his government on the animal industry



Courtesy of Anna E. Jenkins

THE INSTITUTO BIOLÓGICO, SÃO PAULO

This splendid research institution has done a great deal to aid the farmers in the state by discovering methods of eradicating diseases and pests.



AMERICAN-BRAZILIAN COOPERATION

Dr. Anna E. Jenkins, associate mycologist of the United States Department of Agriculture, and Dr. Agesilau A. Bitancourt, of the Instituto Biológico, São Paulo, who together identified the fungus causing the sweet orange scab.

of one of the world's greatest meat-producing areas.

By special invitation from the board of directors of the Rural Association of Paraguay, Dr. Mario C. Acebedo, secretary of the board of directors of the sister association in Uruguay, recently visited Asunción for the purpose of exchanging views concerning the livestock industry of the latter country. While there he gave an address attended by the Minister of Economics and leading livestock breeders, during the course of which he presented his ideas with respect to methods for improving the animal industry of Paraguay. Later on the Rural Association of Uruguay in turn acted as host to Señor Andrés Rivarola, vice president of the

Livestock Society of Paraguay, who was commissioned to study the organization of the Uruguayan association, the keeping of breed registers, the technique of livestock expositions, and related matters.

One of the forms of agricultural cooperation between the American countries is, naturally, the exchange of new or improved plant and animal breeding stock. With reference to the latter, two sets of figures are at hand which will give some idea of the commerce in purebred animals.

During the past four years, there were exported to South America from the United States the following: In 1935, 377 animals; in 1936, 202 animals; in 1937, 334 animals; and in 1938, 609 animals. Shipments to Central America during the same period were as follows: In 1935, 146 animals; in 1936, 70 animals; in 1937, 63 animals; and in 1938, 532 animals. These included cattle, swine, sheep, goats, horses and mules, of which cattle were by far the most numerous. During the years 1936 and 1937 and the first 11 months of 1938, the following shipments of animals were made to Mexico from the United States: Cattle, 2,691; swine, 174; sheep, 1,223; goats, 298; horses, 682; mules, 290; asses, 17; and burros, 12.

In the case of Brazil, the following figures show importations of animals from countries of the Pan American Union for four years. In 1934, 37 cattle from Argentina; in 1935, 95 cattle from Argentina, 53 cattle from Uruguay, 29 horses from Argentina, 37 sheep from Argentina, and 7 sheep from Uruguay; in 1936, one bull from the United States, and 53 cattle, 31 horses, 12 goats, and 6 sheep from Argentina; in 1937, 11 cattle, 1 horse and 4 sheep from Argentina, and 45 goats and 57 swine from the United States.

We mention now a forward-looking scientific organization in Brazil, and how it called in the services of two outstanding plant pathologists from the United States to



Courtesy of Anna E. Jenkins

PAN AMERICAN COOPERATION IN ORANGE GROWING

Dr. Agesilau A. Bitancourt, of the Instituto Biológico, São Paulo, and Dr. H. S. Fawcett, of the California Citrus Experiment Station, worked together on diseases of citrus fruit, and later made an observation trip through the citrus-growing regions of Argentina and Paraguay. Dr. Fawcett is the world's leading authority on citrus diseases.

collaborate in the study of a new citrus disease and of other diseases affecting citrus fruits. The principal characters are Dr. A. A. Bitancourt, Assistant Director of the Biological Institute of São Paulo; Dr. Anna E. Jenkins, Associate Mycologist of the United States Bureau of Plant Industry; and Dr. Howard S. Fawcett, Professor of Plant Pathology of the California Citrus Experiment Station, at Riverside, California, recognized as the leading world authority on citrus diseases.

At the suggestion of Dr. P. H. Rolfs, a genuine Pan American agriculturist who was the founder and first director of the School of Agriculture and Veterinary Science of the State of Minas Geraes at Viçosa, Brazil, Dr. Bitancourt successfully requested the services of Dr. Jenkins in

studying a comparatively new and unnamed scab found on sweet oranges in that country. As a result of her mycological studies there in collaboration with Dr. Bitancourt in 1935 and 1936, this disease, caused by a fungus named for the two scientists, *Elsinoë australis* Bitancourt and Jenkins, was identified. The work begun by Dr. Jenkins was continued and broadened by Dr. Fawcett, who likewise was invited by the Biological Institute to collaborate with Dr. Bitancourt in a general survey and study of citrus diseases. During his five-month stay in Brazil during the early part of 1937, Dr. Fawcett visited the citrus regions of São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Bahia, and Pernambuco, and later traveled through the actual and potential citrus regions of Argentina and Paraguay. Both



THE HARVARD GARDEN IN CUBA

For nearly forty years this garden has been a center of study for botanists and zoologists, especially those from the United States and Cuba.

visiting scientists wrote a number of articles separately and in conjunction with Dr. Bitancourt. It would be difficult to measure the good which results when international experts thus face a common problem and apply their combined knowledge and efforts towards its solution.

The *Cercospora* leaf spot, or sigatoka disease of bananas, caused by the fungus *Cercospora musae* Zimm., has been reported in most of the Caribbean countries during the past five years, and has proved difficult to control economically. It was in an effort to learn at first hand what had been done in other countries to control this disease that the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce of Colombia last year sent its plant pathologist, Dr. Rafael Barrios Ferrer, to study conditions in the affected banana plantations of Honduras, Guatemala and Mexico. The 30-day trip, much

of it made by airplane, covered about 5,000 miles. Dr. Barrios was able to take many photographs of control operations, to discuss the disease with various pathologists, and to render a complete report to his government.

During an extended visit by Sr. Odilón Braga, then Minister of Agriculture of Brazil, who headed a delegation of experts and technicians to Uruguay and Argentina in 1935, many tributes were paid to the visiting official in both countries, and sentiments of Pan American cooperation and solidarity were frequently voiced. The remarks of Dr. César Zanolli, Dean of the College of Agriculture and Veterinary Science of the University of Buenos Aires, may well be mentioned here. He placed every facility of the College of Agriculture at the disposal of his distinguished guests, reviewing earlier ties between his institu-

tion and the Brazilian people. For example, he stated that it had granted honorary doctorates in agricultural science to four Brazilians for their "activities in relation to the sciences taught in this institution and their public services in the field of animal industry and agriculture."

Dr. Zanolli then observed that both Argentina and Brazil had had to discard large-scale, one-crop, unscientific agriculture for rational, scientific, and diversified forms. With reference to increasing the interchange of products between the two countries, he said that this appeared to him perfectly feasible in view of the diversity of crops and the varying degree of development in the livestock industries. "As to the products that we produce in common," he said, "instead of launching a war of mutual destruction we should set about to regulate production and distribution insofar as the needs of our people will permit." Later he remarked: "It is a grave error of government that in large part is responsible for the monstrous paradox presented today: A world full of all the blessings of heaven, in contrast with the frightful phenomenon of unemployment, misery and hunger. The people of our America, who share a common ideal of liberty, social justice and welfare, would do well then to readjust their exchanges, favoring their mutual commerce, lowering their tariff barriers, and transforming the cruel, egotistical struggle for predominance into the noble strength of mutual aid."

This year the Argentine Chamber of Colonization is planning to honor the memory of Juan Bautista Alberdi by convoking on his birthday, August 29, the First American Rural Colonization Congress, to be held in Buenos Aires. To it have been invited all governmental and private institutions in the American republics interested in this important aspect of agriculture. Some readers may be surprised to learn that several of the vast countries of South America are faced with the problem of overcrowded towns and cities, and have initiated "back to the land" campaigns of the kind familiar to the North American.

The foregoing by no means gives the whole story of recent Pan American cooperation in agriculture, but if nothing else has been accomplished, it is hoped that evidence has been adduced to show that this cooperation assumes many and varied forms and is being practiced on a tremendously wide front. There will no doubt be those who consider this brief discussion noteworthy for its omissions. In this connection it must be pointed out that it would be practically impossible for one person even to catalogue the activities that are daily generated by this habit of cooperation. Because agriculture can progress only by its incorporation of new scientific discoveries and technique, and because science knows no boundaries, inter-American cooperation in agriculture is not merely desirable but necessary.

Earthquake in Chile

WRITING from Santiago on December 26 last, a visitor who has been spending some delightful months in Chile described her recent visit to the southern part of that beautiful country. She said in part:

The Central Railroad which we were taking toward the south runs through the fertile valley between the Andes on the west and the Coastal Range on the east. This valley is cut from southeast to northwest by countless rivers which rise in glaciers high up in the Andes. Rich soil, plenty of water, and abundant sunshine produce marvelous crops. At first we travelled through a country with miles of vineyards, and a veritable plaid of flooded rice-fields. And there were orchards and vegetable gardens, and everywhere glorious wild flowers. The fields were set off one from the other with double rows of slim Lombardy poplars. Try to picture the borders of wild flowers, the light greens of the fields, the lines of poplars stretching as far as the eye could reach toward distant blue mountains with now and then a snow-capped volcano. And every short while we rumbled over a small, turbulent river.

By the late afternoon of the first day we came to the largest river in Chile, the Bío-Bío, and turned west along its bank to Concepción and the sea. The city proved for the most part to have the true Spanish colonial charm. . . .

We were in Concepción on the last Sunday in the month dedicated to the Virgin Mary—the Sunday when the children make their first communion. The streets were filled with little boys in black suits, and little girls in floor-length bridal dresses with veils and armfuls of lilies. That seems to be the traditional costume for the occasion here in South America. In the evening we met long processions of children streaming into the plaza for the final ceremony of the day. They were very amusing with their grown-up clothes and frequent childish antics.

That evening we walked out to the University of Concepción. It has what greatly resembles a campus in the North American sense of the word, except that there are no residences for the students. The buildings are very modern in style, all gleaming white with great expanses of glass for light and air. In its setting of green lawn and brilliant flowers with a tree-covered hill rising behind it, it makes a beautiful picture.

Less than a month after these lines were written that lovely city and countryside were rent by a terrible earthquake, whose effects were vividly described by the Hon. Norman Armour, United States Ambassador to Chile, in a radio address delivered on February 6, at Washington. The Ambassador said:

Last week you all read the appeal from our President on behalf of the sufferers from the earthquake in Chile. I know that everyone will respond generously through the Red Cross.

One week ago today in Santiago, the capital of Chile, I stepped aboard a United States army plane which was rushing on an errand of mercy and accompanied it to the earthquake stricken area. The scene which I saw on that summer's afternoon, for it is midsummer in Chile now, will remain forever in my memory.

The earthquake occurred at 11:35 p. m. on the night of January 24. We felt quite a severe shock in Santiago and its vicinity, but there was no loss of life or serious damage done in that city. The following morning, however, the news spread through the capital that a major disaster had occurred and immediately the energies of the entire country were mobilized.

The part of the country affected is the section known as the granary of Chile—the rich farming district largely devoted to the growing of wheat. The section affected by the earthquake is roughly one half the size of the State of New York, and contains in addition to a large rural population many cities and towns well populated. Concepción, the largest city of the district, is a town of about 80,000 persons and the principal port for the central section of the country. The town of Concepción itself was badly damaged, about a quarter of the city being destroyed.

But the town hardest hit in the section was Chillán, a city of some 40,000 to 50,000 people, only two or three buildings remaining standing. Virtually all towns in the area and even the isolated farm houses were damaged, and as I flew over the area last week, it was a grim spectacle to see the havoc wrought in a few brief seconds by the destructive forces of nature turned against the work it had taken man many years to accomplish.

The Chilean Government, as soon as word was

received, despatched troops to the area and order was soon reestablished. One of the great obstacles to be overcome, however, was the lack of communication. The railway line was severely damaged and it was impossible to use it for several days; even roads were almost impassable due to the earth's upheaval. So planes played an important part from the beginning. Immediately Panagra, the American airplane service between the United States and Chile and other South American countries, generously placed several of its planes at the disposal of the Chilean Government and their pilots have done splendid work in transporting the more seriously injured from Chillán and Concepción to Santiago and other cities where hospitals are located.

You will recall that the earthquake occurred on Tuesday night and it was just six days later on last Monday afternoon that two of our large American army planes arrived in Santiago from the Panama Canal Zone carrying supplies generously contributed by the American Red Cross: Anti-gangrene and anti-tetanus serums and other medical supplies urgently needed. I joined the planes on their arrival in Santiago, accompanied by a representative of the American Red Cross. Although they had been in the air since four o'clock that morning, our American officers pushed on to the stricken area. Two hours later, we were flying over the ruins of what had once been prosperous and peaceful towns.

In Chillán, we found almost no buildings standing. Most of the streets were blocked with debris, and men were still working on the ruins trying to reach the many bodies buried beneath those masses of masonry. But it will be weeks before those blocks can be removed and in the meantime the danger of pestilence and disease is one that is giving great concern.

As the earthquake occurred at night, many adults and virtually all of the children were in bed. But since the night was fine, others were in the streets and public squares. Also a special gala performance was being given in the town theater. Of the several hundred people at this performance, few are alive today. Great tumbled blocks of brick and concrete mark their common tomb.

I walked over the ruins of this theater. The walls had collapsed and the roof fallen almost at once so that the majority of the people were killed outright. But for several hours, even days, cries and groans came from below and only the day before I was there, five days after the disaster, a man was dug out alive but delirious from his terrible experience.

As we went from house to house, pathetic sights met our eyes. Men and women were still working among the ruins in search of relatives and friends or sitting grief stricken and helpless, gazing at the debris. One man I spoke with told me that he had left his house the night of the earthquake for a few minutes to see a friend. He was on his way back when suddenly the earth rocked beneath him. "And where is one to go, Señor," he said, "when the earth beneath your feet gives way? I staggered on," he added; "all the world seemed to crash about me. Finally somehow I reached my house, or the place where my house had once been but there was nothing there, only brick and plaster and my wife and three little ones beneath. We have found only two of them; the others are still there," he said, pointing to the ruins.

One of the saddest features of the disaster was the high mortality among the children. I was told that about 70 percent of the dead were children, which is explained by the fact that the earthquake occurred at 11:35, and practically all of them were in bed. The hospitals in Santiago, in preparing to receive the injured, expected in general to find the numbers about equally distributed among men, women and children. But a doctor told me that there were very few children among the injured who had been brought in. Most of them were either killed by those falling walls as they slept or, routed out by the earth's rocking, were laid low as they sought to escape the horror around them.

I would not give you the impression, however, that the people are bowed down before the disaster, great as it is. The Chileans are a strong and virile race. Its history is the history of a brave and courageous people and in this hour of trial they are showing themselves true to their great traditions.

Temporary shelters have been erected; in many cases merely a lean-to of twisted corrugated iron over the ruins of what had once been a house. In the squares tents and shelters have been put up and relief workers are distributing food and boiled water to those who remain. The water question in all of the towns is a serious one. Practically all water mains were broken and what water there is is apt to be contaminated; so every precaution must be taken if epidemic and disease are to be avoided. That is where the supplies of disinfectant and serums which the American Red Cross has generously furnished will be a great help. For the fight has only just begun.

Order everywhere prevails. In Chillán—I keep

referring to Chillán for it was the town most damaged and the one in which I spent most of my time, but what is true of Chillán is true of the others—in Chillán, temporary hospitals have been erected but every effort is being made to evacuate the wounded to nearby towns not affected or to Santiago where the larger hospitals are situated. For the first days, there were no trains and planes were largely used in transporting the injured. The airport of Chillán is about six miles from the town and the injured had to be transported over rough roads in motor ambulances or ordinary automobiles. It was a slow and painful task but gradually the worst cases were taken care of. The day we were there, our Douglas army plane brought six injured cases back to Santiago. It took off from Chillán just after sunset and the two hours' flying back to Santiago were in darkness. And yet the young captain brought his plane over the mountains to a safe landing in the airport of Santiago, which he had seen for the first time on his arrival that morning.

From Concepción the injured were brought to Santiago largely by boat. Two British warships happened to be in Valparaíso on a visit at the time of the earthquake and left immediately for the scene of the disaster where the officers and men performed splendid work in helping out.

I must here refer to the fine spirit of solidarity and cooperation shown by all countries, particularly in the Americas. A great national disaster, a blow like this, to one of our sister republics shows how closely knit we are in this hemisphere of ours. Physical barriers—great mountains and tropical jungles—may separate us; we may from time to time differ in our points of view, but let a tragedy like that which Chile has suffered come to one of us and all else is forgotten save the desire to do all we can to be of assistance. From Argentina came two train loads of supplies and ambulances; food and supplies from Brazil, a ship from Peru. All the "good neighbors" rushed to aid, wishing to do their part to help and show their sympathy.

And towards none is Chile more grateful than to the people of the United States for the ready response they have shown and the sympathy they have demonstrated through the American Red Cross. I made my decision to fly to Washington on short notice, but in the brief time after my plans became known, I had many calls from Chilean friends asking me to be sure to tell all of you in the United States how deeply Chile appreciates what is being done. They feel that those planes from the north rushing more than five thousand miles carrying supplies of all kinds are

the symbol, the personification of the friendship of the people of our country for the people of Chile. One of our neighbors is in need; his house is in ruins; many of his family are dead. What more natural than that we should pack up what supplies we feel he may require and take them over to him with a friendly word of sympathy in his hour of sorrow.

For the need of Chile is great. It is difficult to give any very definite figures as yet. I have been asked several times the number of the dead and injured. The figures given for the dead range from 8,000 to 15,000, but until those stones and blocks are removed, no one will really know. Many are missing, but some of these may in the first shock of catastrophe have rushed off to friends and relatives outside the earthquake area.

As to the injured, the list of medical and other supplies which was sent to Washington shortly after the disaster was based upon a figure of 18,000 injured given me by the Red Cross Society of Chile. As to property damage, this is estimated anywhere from \$30,000,000 to \$50,000,000, while 80,000 persons are said to be homeless and destitute.

It is now summer in Chile but soon the cold weather will set in—and don't forget there is cold weather in central Chile—and the rains will come. These people must have shelter; tents are needed, badly needed. Some are already on their way down from the Canal Zone. Also corrugated iron roofing is required, as much as we can send, as a shelter not only for the people but for their food and crops. And, perhaps most important of all, warm new clothing, boots and shoes, sweaters and socks.

Medical supplies will probably continue to be required for some time but the help already given by our government and the Red Cross and by the other countries of South America has done much to meet this great need.

The Chileans are a proud and self-reliant people, who do not plead for help. But they are also a people who feel deeply, and their appreciation is and will be all the deeper if assistance from the United States, on which they have always looked as their friend, comes unsolicited by them—a generous and spontaneous response by one neighbor, when he learns of the disaster which has befallen another.

It will be remembered that the hurricane that caused such destruction in New York and New England last September took a toll of 700 lives. Some conception of the

frightfulness of the Chilean calamity may be obtained by imagining what grief and terror would have seized the United States if more than thirty times as many persons had perished in that storm—for if even 8,000, the lowest figure for fatalities in Chile, is correct, a corresponding disaster here would have meant nearly 250,000 deaths.

Among the many stories of heroism coming from the stricken regions perhaps none was more touching than that reported by *The New York Times*. At Chillán, Guillermo Díaz, fifteen years old, was on duty that summer night at the main electric power station. When the shock came, he instinctively dashed out into the open square, but presumably recollecting how dangerous broken live wires would be in the city streets, he made his way back to the station, dodging falling roofs and crashing walls, and reached the switch-board. As he turned off the current, the building collapsed upon him; he was found two days later, his hand still upon the controls.

At a meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union on February 1, 1938, the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State and Chairman of the Governing Board, said.

GENTLEMEN OF THE GOVERNING BOARD:

Since our last meeting, the people of all countries, especially those of this hemisphere, have been greatly shocked to learn of the awful earthquake that has visited our sister Republic of Chile. The loss of life was unprecedented in a long period of time; perhaps without precedent in this hemi-

sphere. The general devastation is beyond the imagination. I know our hearts go out in deepest sympathy to our bereaved friends and fellow citizens of America who have been overtaken by this unspeakable calamity. Permit me to propose the following resolution:

Having learned of the appalling disaster that has visited the southern section of Chile,

THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

RESOLVES:

1. To express to the Government and people of Chile the profound sympathy felt by the members of the Board in this moment of national sorrow.
2. To urge upon the philanthropic institutions of the countries, members of the Pan American Union, to contribute to the alleviation of the distress of the people in the zone of the disaster.
3. To request the Director General to transmit this resolution to the Government of Chile through its representative on the Governing Board, and also to forward it to the Red Cross organizations in the countries, members of the Union.

After the resolution had been passed by acclamation, the Hon. Sergio Huneeus, Chargé d'Affaires of Chile, said:

MR. CHAIRMAN AND MEMBERS OF THE BOARD:

It is with profound gratitude and deep emotion that I have heard the remarks of the Chairman of the Governing Board and also the resolution unanimously approved by the members of the Board. May I say, on behalf of my Government and on my own behalf, that I feel most deeply impressed by this evidence of friendship in this sad moment. This is one more demonstration of our Pan American solidarity, and I feel that every word that goes to Chile in these moments will have great moral effect, and will supplement the material support already extended by the countries so well represented on this Board. I shall be very much honored and pleased to forward this resolution to my Government.

Agriculture in Stamps of the Pan American Republics

BEATRICE NEWHALL

Assistant Editor, BULLETIN of the Pan American Union

THE COUNTRIES of the New World have been largely agricultural for hundreds of years. Their mineral wealth was, it is true, the magnet that drew explorer, adventurer, and buccaneer to these shores, but it was the settler, the farmer, the cattle raiser who contributed in greatest measure to their colonization and development. Even today, the principal export from 15 of the 21 countries, members of the Pan American Union, is agricultural—bananas, cacao, coffee, corn, cotton, sugar, or wool.

It is not surprising, therefore, that Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela have paid tribute to agriculture on their stamps, especially in the last 20 years, when the value of stamps as a source of publicity for the country has been most keenly realized.

The earliest stamp designs consisted chiefly of the denomination on a fancy background, the national coat of arms, or portraits of leading statesmen. The first stamps in America were those issued by Brazil in 1843, but it was not until 1866 that any phase of agriculture was commemorated on this continent. In that year Peru issued a 5-centavo stamp showing llamas, those American mountain cousins of the camel which provided the Incas with transportation and wool for textiles, and which are still constantly used

in the Andes. Allegorical figures symbolic of agriculture appeared on stamps in the 1890's, and gradually the field broadened until today more than a dozen crops, various phases of farming and the livestock and dairy industries, and different types of workers have been depicted on stamps.

Nicaragua, with the Goddess of Plenty on its 1891 issue, was the first country to pay tribute to a personification of the fertile earth. Uruguay, in 1895, and El Salvador in 1899, showed Ceres, the goddess of growing vegetation, and Haiti, in 1920, had an interesting stamp in which the



ALLEGORY OF AGRICULTURE

Nicaragua is one of several countries to portray the Goddess of Agriculture on a stamp.



FARMERS AND FARMING

The farmer and different types of farming, utilizing the hand-guided plow or the modern machine, have been shown on stamps of many American nations.



VARIOUS PRODUCTS HONORED ON STAMPS

Cacao (Ecuador, upper left); orange trees and yerba maté (Paraguay, upper right); Peruvian balsam (El Salvador, center left); fruit (Argentina, center right); tobacco (Cuba, lower left); and cotton (Peru, lower right) are seven of the many American agricultural products featured on stamps.

goddess of agriculture watches over a laborer in a sugarcane field.

Plowing is unquestionably one of the oldest forms of labor performed in the world, for it dates back to the days when man first provided himself with other food than that which he took when and as nature gave it to him. For untold generations he was helped in this task by beasts of burden, which have not been entirely superseded by machinery. Stamps of Cuba (1899), the Dominican Republic (1937, with its legend "Peace, Labor, Progress"), Ecuador (1930), Venezuela (1937) and El Salvador (announced in 1938) show man plowing behind oxen, in the time-honored fashion. A stamp of the trans-Mississippi issue of the United States (1898, "Farming in the West"), depicts animal-drawn machines on the great plains. Three Argentine issues (1911, 1912-14, and 1936) show a farmer behind a plow looking across straight furrows to the sun on the horizon. A semi-postal stamp of Ecuador (1935), issued to provide funds for rural workers' insurance, shows a sturdy workman in the center, while at the side are ears of grain.

Harvesting is commemorated in two stamps, a parcel-post stamp of the United States (1912-13) and one of the latest Bolivian issues (1938) wherein a tractor is seen against a background of the ripe crop, with rows of stubble in the foreground.

In the interests of agriculture in general, Paraguay issued in 1930 a semi-postal stamp with a surtax for the benefit of a proposed school for agriculture and stock-raising. A picture of the school building was flanked by products of soil on one side and livestock on the other, and underneath was the legend, *Patriotas y almas nobles: ayudad a esta institución cultural que forma hombres de trabajo y labra la prosperidad de la patria* (Patriots and noble souls: Help this cultural institution, which trains

men and builds the prosperity of our country).

A truly unique product featured on an American stamp is Peruvian balsam which, in spite of its name, comes from El Salvador. A stamp of the 1924-25 issue shows the tree, whose tall, straight trunk rises 80 to 100 feet and is crowned with graceful branches. The balsam is extracted from the trunk, as shown in a 1935 stamp: The trunk is scored, and when the balsam begins to run, clean cloths are applied to the wounds to catch it. The saturated cloths are boiled with water; the balsam floats to the top, and is skimmed off, partly refined, and then sealed in drums for export. It is used in medicinal preparations and in the manufacture of soap.

Bananas figure prominently in the exports of eight American nations, but have been featured on the stamps of only two, Colombia and Costa Rica. On the Colombian stamp (1932, air-mail) is a full stem of bananas, as it grows from the stalk. A 1923 Costa Rican stamp shows banana plants growing, while one of 1937 from the same country depicts a native beside a donkey laden with banana stems, with a banana plantation as a background. The banana appears incidentally on another recent Colombian stamp, mentioned below, which reminds us that banana plants are grown with coffee trees to give them the needed protection from the sun, and on a Brazilian stamp featuring Mt. Gavea near Rio de Janeiro, and showing two handsome banana plants in the foreground.

Cacao also is important in the export trade of eight countries of this hemisphere. A 1936-37 Venezuelan stamp shows not only the gathering of the pods, but also how they grow—directly from the trunk of the tree. For a better view of the cacao pod, there is a 1937 stamp of Costa Rica, with some of the leaves of the tree, and



COFFEE IS AN AMERICAN PRODUCT

Coffee flowers and berries are shown on stamps of many different countries.

one from Ecuador (1930), showing a different variety; Ecuador also boasts of its cacao in a stamp of the same issue in which both coffee and cacao are featured as national products.

The leading export commodity of seven American nations is coffee, which figures more or less prominently in the export trade of five more. Various phases of its cultivation and preparation, from the plantation to the pier, may be seen in the stamps of seven countries.

Coffee was introduced in America, according to William H. Ukers (*All about Coffee*), by the French, who early in the 18th century brought the plant to the West Indies. In 1927 Brazil commemorated the bicentenary of the introduction of coffee into that country with a special stamp showing Liberty holding a sprig of the tree, against a São Paulo coffee plantation as background. The centenary of coffee cultivation in Costa Rica has also been noted (1921).

A single coffee tree appears in an official stamp of 1929 issued by Honduras; how the coffee berry grows may be seen on a 1928 stamp of Haiti showing two branches, one with the flowers growing at the juncture of leaves and stem, the other with the coffee berries, or on a 1932 Colombian air-mail stamp, featuring the starry blossoms and plump berries. The berries appear even more clearly in a Venezuelan stamp (1938) where a girl is gathering them in a large basket. Because the coffee berry is easily bruised, it has to be carefully picked by hand (Costa Rica 1923). The trees are not very tall, so that the top branches may be reached by the use of a stepladder, as pictured in a 1934 Colombian stamp. The baskets are then emptied in large sacks, as shown on another Colombian stamp (1932), the berries collected in carts as on a 1937 Costa Rican stamp, and taken to a central point to be prepared for



COFFEE GROWING AND MARKETING

Banana plants are often used to provide shade for the delicate coffee trees, as shown in the Colombian stamp at the top. A harvesting scene is portrayed in the Costa Rican stamp, center. El Salvador honors its principal export product in the bottom stamp, showing bags of coffee on the pier ready for shipment.

market. The cleaning processes through which the coffee berry must pass are not depicted on any American stamps. We next see it bagged: A Brazilian stamp (1937) shows bags stamped with the national flag and flanked by a branch of the tree, and El Salvador, on a 1935 stamp, has the legend *El café de El Salvador es de consumo universal* (The coffee of El Salvador is consumed throughout the world) under a picture of bags of coffee piled on the pier by a great ocean liner. It is also interesting to note that a current Colombian cancellation states, in five languages, that Colombia produces the best mild coffee.

Cotton is another crop that figures prominently in American economy, but neither the United States, which has led the world in cotton growing, nor Brazil, where under a program of diversified production cotton has rapidly increased in importance, has honored cotton on a stamp.

Peru, however, where cotton holds first place in the list of export commodities, and where a superior variety has been developed, has issued two cotton stamps; and Argentina, although cotton is eleventh on its list of exports, has issued one. The Argentine stamp (1936) shows a whole plant, covered with bolls; a single snowy boll appears on one of the stamps issued in Peru in 1935 to commemorate the tercentenary of the founding of the city of Ica. The earlier Peruvian cotton stamp (1931-32) shows that cotton picking is still much the same in most countries, notwithstanding the recent introduction of the mechanical cotton picker.

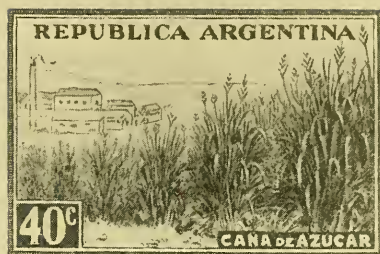
It is not many years since fruit was generally enjoyed only in the immediate region in which it was grown. Means of rapid transportation and, more especially, improved methods of refrigeration make it possible for the inhabitant of one zone to enjoy the fresh fruits of any other, thus taking them out of the luxury class.

The United States, in its 1912-13 parcel post series, showed an orchard, and labeled the stamp "Fruit Growing". As long ago as 1901 Uruguay issued two stamps indicating its pride in the fruit of the country; one showed a cupid with a horn of plenty, the other a basket of tempting fruit in which pineapples, grapes, and pears figure prominently. *El Ecuador exporta frutas* (Ecuador exports fruit) declares a 1930 stamp of that country, depicting melons, bananas, and other fruit on the pier beside a steamship. One of the handsomest and most mouth-watering stamps is that of Argentina (1936), on which oranges, apples, pears, grapes, lemons and melons pour from an overturned basket.

Grapes are given two stamps of their own. Argentina in 1936 had a mammoth cluster of fine grapes over the legend "*Vitivinicultura*," calling the world's attention to the fact that it grows grapes both for the table and for wine. Another stamp of the Ica tercentenary, Peru, features a handsome bunch of grapes, with the words "*Puro de Ica*" above it, for the city lies in the midst of a famous vineyard section of Peru, and is noted for its wines and liquors.

The orange tree depicted on a 1931 Paraguayan stamp represents a little-known source of wealth of that republic. It is true that edible oranges are grown in abundance and shipped abroad from that southern republic, but it is also true that the wild orange tree of Paraguay provides a valuable commercial commodity—oil of petit-grain. In normal times about 80 tons of the oil, which is extracted from the leaves, are sent abroad to manufacturers of soaps, perfumes, and flavoring extracts; this amount represents approximately 70 percent of the world demand.

Sugar and its by-product molasses figure prominently in the exports of five nations—Cuba, the Dominican Republic, El Salva-



SUGAR ON AMERICAN STAMPS

The growing and cutting of sugarcane and primitive and modern sugar mills are shown on stamps from Argentina, Cuba, Ecuador, and El Salvador.

dor, Haiti, and Peru. Some of them have devoted stamps to the subject, and two countries, Argentina and Ecuador, where sugarcane is more important in national than in foreign trade, have also done so.

The growing cane is portrayed on a 1936 Argentine stamp, and on one of three issued by Cuba in 1937 to commemorate the fourth centenary of the introduction of sugarcane in the island (1535–1935). A field of cane, with a worker cutting it and with the sugar central barely appearing in the background, is the subject of a 1931–32 Peruvian stamp. Ecuador showed, in a 1930 stamp, a field where the cut cane is being loaded into carts, while a somewhat similar theme is on a Salvadorean 1935 stamp bearing the legend *El Salvador produce la mejor azúcar de caña* (El Salvador produces the best cane sugar). Cuba, as befits one of the chief cane sugar producing countries of the world, has three other stamps devoted to the subject. One of those issued on the occasion of the meeting of the Sixth International Conference of American States at Habana, in 1928, shows a sugar mill in the midst of broad fields, while the other two that complete the 1937 series mentioned above show respectively a primitive and a modern mill. An announced Salvadorean issue for 1938 includes a native sugar mill, with oxen and workers in the scene.

A single tobacco plant appears on a triangular air-mail Paraguayan stamp issued in 1935–36 and bearing the legend, *El tabaco paraguayo es de excelente calidad* (Paraguayan tobacco is of excellent quality). A “close-up” of a tobacco field, with a worker, was included in the Centenary of Independence issue of Ecuador, in 1930, while one of the extensive Cuban fields was included in the Conference series of 1928.

Yerba maté is sometimes called “Paraguayan tea”, so it is not surprising to find

the plant honored on two stamps issued by Paraguay, both in 1931. On one it shares honors with the orange tree mentioned earlier in this article; on the other, branches flank an airplane flying over the words *La yerba paraguaya es la mejor* (Paraguayan yerba is the best).

Another important phase of agriculture is livestock raising, and various phases of the cattle industry and sheepraising have appeared on stamps.

Cattle were shown on a stamp in the 1898 issue of the United States, entitled “Western Cattle in Storm”. Uruguay, in two issues of 1900 and 1904–05, shows a group of spirited animals within a fancy border. Cattle appear, too, on one of the 1936 Chilean series chiefly glorifying natural resources, and on a 1932 Colombian air-mail stamp. In a 1937 Venezuelan stamp a splendid bull stands out against a drove of cattle herded by a cowboy in the background.

A bull’s head on an Uruguayan stamp of the 1895–96 issue was the first cattle stamp in America; that of another splendid specimen is on a 1936 Argentine stamp.

A cow was featured by Uruguay in two issues, of 1904–05 and 1906, respectively. The dairy industry was included in the parcel post series of 1912–13 by the United States, the stamp showing cows grazing in a pasture.

Sheepraising is an important industry in southern Argentina and Chile, and both countries have recognized it on their stamps. A sturdy merino ram is featured on a 1936 Argentine stamp, and in the same year Chile issued one showing sheep grazing. Peru is encouraging sheepraising; an air-mail stamp of 1936 shows a ram over the legend *Industria lanar—ejemplar de la granja modelo de Puno* (Wool industry—specimen from the Model Farm at Puno).

Men and women who take part in agri-



THE LIVESTOCK INDUSTRY ON STAMPS

Cattle, sheep, and a nineteenth-century gaucho, or cowboy, are phases of the livestock industry celebrated on American stamps.



FERTILIZER STAMPS

Mineral and animal fertilizers have been commemorated on the stamps of Chile and Peru.

cultural pursuits also have their place on stamps. Some have already been mentioned in connection with specific products. Others include the farmer, seen on a Brazilian stamp of 1922, somewhat similar in design to the Argentine stamp mentioned near the beginning of this article, and on the NRA stamp issued by the United States in 1933, where he is marching

shoulder to shoulder with workers in other industries.

Bolivia and Uruguay have portrayed the sower; the former, in its 1925 Centenary of the Republic issue, as a symbolic figure; the latter in 1933, when he was shown scattering grain on a plowed field.

The gaucho, the South American cowboy, stands alone on a 1895-96 Uruguayan stamp, but on an air-mail stamp of 1925 he sits on his horse, watching an airplane just risen from the ground. The charro, a glorified Mexican version of the cowboy, appears on a 1934 Mexican stamp.

Uruguay has honored the shepherdess by two issues, of 1900 and 1904-05, respectively.

Other products besides those mentioned appear incidentally on American stamps. Many countries have used their coats of arms; on the Bolivian coat of arms, for instance, the llama and a sheaf of wheat figure; on the Peruvian, the llama and the cinchona tree, the source of quinine; on the Uruguayan, a horse and a steer; and on the Venezuelan, a sheaf of wheat and a horse. An early stamp of independent Cuba (1899) shows coconut palms, and in the War of Independence issue (1933) of the same country one stamp depicts the mango trees of the plains of Baraguá, famous not so much for their luscious fruit as for an historical meeting between the opposing Generals Maceo and Martínez Campo near the close of the unsuccessful 10-year fight for independence, 1868-1878. Surrounding a small view of Mt. Chimborazo on an Ecuadorean stamp of 1934 is a border of national products which include banana plants, cacao, and a pineapple. A Costa Rican air-mail stamp (1934) shows a plane flying over grazing sheep, which take no notice of it.

An indispensable aid to agriculture through the centuries has been fertilizer. From islands off the coast of Peru thousands of tons of guano have been and are

being extracted to enrich the fields in other parts of the world. Peru has advertised its guano deposits on one stamp of the 1931-32 issue and on another issued, in different colors, in 1936 and 1937; the latter contains a striking picture of a *guanay*, or Peruvian cormorant, its nest, and its young. These cormorants and other seabirds deposit the guano.

The value of nitrate as a fertilizer has been known only little more than a century; since 1881 the vast nitrate fields of

northern Chile have been an important source of revenue for the government. To celebrate the 100th anniversary of the first shipment of nitrate from Chile, three stamps were issued in 1930, two bearing the phrase *Salitre significa prosperidad* (Nitrate means prosperity); that there might be no doubt of its agricultural use, one stamp shows a field worker bearing a heavy sheaf of wheat. A 1936 stamp shows the extraction of nitrate, and another in current use depicts a refinery.

Material Available for Pan American Day Programs

TO ASSIST GROUPS planning to observe Pan American Day (April 14) the Pan American Union offers for free distribution the material listed below. The limited supply, however, makes it possible to send material to teachers or group leaders but not to individual students. Material may be ordered by the number corresponding to each item.

1. BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION (March issue). Special number dedicated to Pan American Day.

2. THE MEANING OF PAN AMERICAN DAY. A memorandum on its origin and significance.

3. THE PEACE MACHINERY OF THE AMERICAN CONTINENT. Inter-American treaties for the peaceful settlement of international disputes.

4. THREE RECENT INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES OF AMERICAN STATES. Montevideo, Buenos Aires and Lima.

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6. THE AMERICAS. Major historical facts, principal geographical features, forms of government,

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11. COMMERCIAL POLICY AND THE LIMA CONFERENCE. Special number of *Commercial Pan America*.

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13. TIT FOR TAT. A playlet by David S. Goldberg. Suitable for elementary and junior high

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Note: The observance of Pan American Day offers opportunities for the writing and presentation of original material in plays and pageants. Groups presenting

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19. PARA LOS NIÑOS DE AMÉRICA. Collection of poems and legends in Spanish by Gastón Figueira of Uruguay.

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Miscellaneous Material

21. SUGGESTIONS FOR PAN AMERICAN DAY PROGRAMS. Summarized ideas which have been worked into successful Pan American Day programs in past years in the United States and Latin America; including outlines of ceremonies utilizing the flags of the twenty-one American Republics, with list of firms from which flags may be purchased.

22. SOURCES FOR LATIN AMERICAN MUSIC. Brief lists of songs, orchestra and band arrangements, and collections of songs, sheet music and phonograph records, with names of publishers.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima, Peru, in 1938. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant

Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, intellectual and agricultural cooperation, juridical matters, and travel, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 90,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



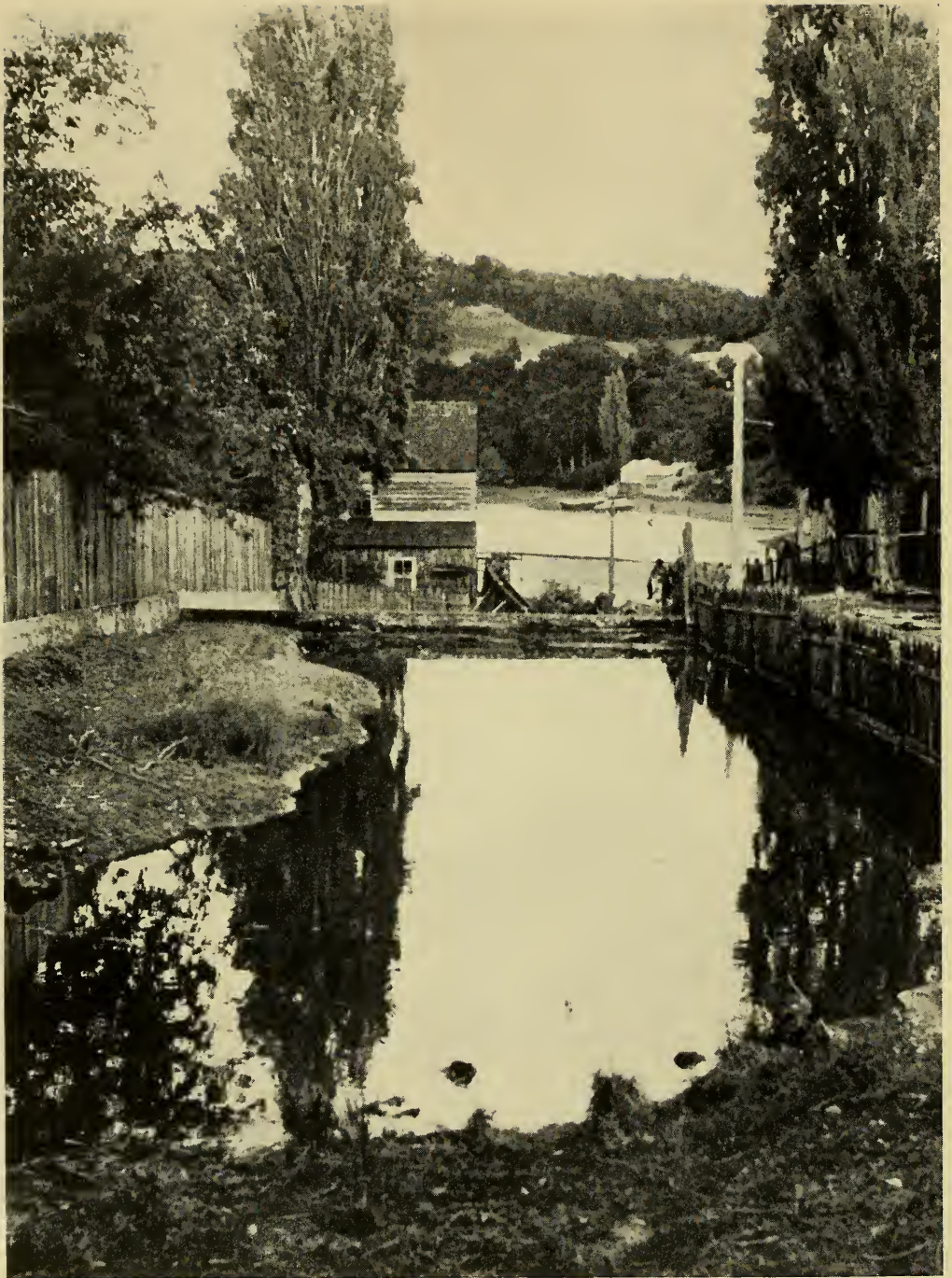
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(The contents of previous issues of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union can be found in the "Readers' Guide" in your library)

At side: XOCHIPILLI, THE AZTEC GOD OF FLOWERS, IN THE GARDEN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION





Courtesy of Chilean Tourist Bureau

A RURAL SCENE IN CHILE

"No matter what country calls us its sons, we love it not only because it has nourished us but because it is beautiful."

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIII, No. 4



APRIL 1939

Gabriela Mistral at the Pan American Union

GABRIELA MISTRAL was warmly welcomed by a large audience of her admirers at the Pan American Union on February 24, 1939. They had come at the invitation of the then Chargé d'Affaires of Chile, Sr. Sergio Huneeus, to a meeting that was the last of a series of tributes paid the noted Chilean poet during her brief visit to Washington. Members of diplomatic, literary, and social circles gathered in the Hall of Heroes of the Union to hear her speak on *The Human Geography of Chile*.

Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, presided. He said:

The Pan American Union is especially honored by the presence this evening of Gabriela Mistral, one of the outstanding literary figures of America. Her name is known throughout our continent as the author of *Desolación* and of many other poems as well as articles and essays. Teacher, official of the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, lecturer and writer, she has felt the pulsing life of the American nations and of Europe as well.

There is much that I might add about her manifold accomplishments, but no one is better fitted for that pleasant task than her distinguished

compatriot, the Hon. Sergio Huneeus, Chargé d'Affaires of Chile, whom I now take pleasure in presenting to you.

The speaker of the evening was then introduced by Sr. Huneeus, as follows:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:

I ask your special indulgence for claiming your attention for a few minutes. I am conscious of your justifiable impatience—a feeling I have experienced more than once—as you eagerly await the words of our distinguished speaker. Yet long-standing custom constrains you to listen to one who, simply because of his official position, occupies the chair perhaps longer than is necessary.

It is generally believed that, at gatherings of this kind, the more noted the speaker the easier the task of introduction; but this rule has its exceptions, one of which confronts me tonight: I am called upon to present a great literary figure who has won universal renown and whose course in life has invariably taken the path of modesty. This is Gabriela Mistral. She does not like praise, I know, however well-deserved, but I cannot possibly pass over the verities and virtues of a pellucid life and a perfect work that compel the admiration of all who know her.

As I comply with this pleasant formality, I am not unaware of the difficulty of my undertaking,



GABRIELA MISTRAL

which indeed seems as difficult as scaling the steepest cliff. You all know Gabriela; you are enthusiastic admirers of her prose and poetry, and you are eager to hear from her lips that human truth, charged with emotion, yet sweet as music, which you have found in her books.

She was born in Vicuña, in the beautiful and peaceful Elqui Valley, one of the oases of that arid region of northern Chile; it might be said that, as a divine recognition of that bit of fertile soil where she first saw the light, she was born there to be a human oasis in the midst of the stolid and sturdy people who grow in our mining districts.

Her rare spirit and delicate sensitiveness soon opened wide all doors for her conquest of the intellectual world; her incomparable serenity marked for her the course reserved by God for the elect. Proud, conscious of her inner flame, humane to the point of sacrifice, Gabriela Mistral made a deep impression many years ago on my compatriots, who looked upon her with affection and involuntary respect, as a new and extraordinary force whose triumphal progress it was impossible to restrain. In 1907, we find her stating a principle of life which she has followed with religious sincerity. She said at that time: "I am modest to the point of humility, and proud to the point of arrogance." . . .

As the years went by, she devoted herself with divine insight and maternal tenderness to her duties as a teacher, for which she was educated. . . . And what greater joy is there for a woman brimming with natural affection than to point out the road to life to innocent children? . . . Creatures devoid of hatred, ignorant of passion, and only eager to learn and to be guided along the path of righteousness.

The Government of Chile entrusted special duties to her, and so she traveled, on a teaching mission, from the arid regions of the north to our romantic south. . . . Thus she trained generations of girls to whom she transmitted her motherly goodness and her nobility as a teacher. . . . Among the many institutions that she directed was the principal secondary school of Santiago, yet she always found time—while punctiliously fulfilling her official duties—to read much, to think effectively, and to write until she had laid the foundations of her imperishable work.

Periods of study and hard work succeeded each other; bitter disillusionment and years of struggle tempered her character still more, until in 1922 she decided to begin the noble pilgrimage, still unfinished, that she has performed almost as though it were the supreme command of destiny. . . . First she visited Mexico, a country of which she is particularly fond not only because of the generous welcome it accorded her but because of its remarkable beauty and the vigorous temperament of its people, who captivated her imagination and inspired her to prose and poetry worthy of the greatest literary masters of all time. . . .

As though guided by holy faith she went ever forward, and on a mission of love traversed the Ibero-American countries of this continent. . . . With legitimate racial pride, the Latin nations acclaimed her with one accord. Chile, her beloved native land, also acclaimed her, but at first it did so timidly and hesitatingly, or rather, with the bewilderment of a poor man who has unexpectedly discovered a great treasure.

But you must not think that in so doing the Chileans appreciated any the less that inexhaustible wealth of virtue incarnate in Gabriela Mistral. If we have not always showered upon her all the adjectives required by a just appraisal of her genius, at least we have had—for all our traditional lack of sophistication—the inner pride of knowing that she is one of us.

This curious state of mind of ours finds perhaps its clearest poetic summary in the words of Pedro Prado, a discriminating and talented Chilean poet. When Gabriela Mistral started on her first visit

to Mexico, with its old legends and its colorful Indian architecture, Pedro Prado wrote:

"You will recognize her for the nobility that she awakens. . . ."

"From her whole being flows a sweet and gracious balm. Oh, gentle invisible rain, wherever you pass you soften hard clods and germinate the seeds hidden therein. . . ."

"Make no fanfare in her presence, for she is resolved to have simplicity. . . ."

"The taciturn mountain-dwellers of my country do not understand her, but they venerate and follow her. Oh clear and artless knowledge. . . ."

"You summon her, and they let her go to you; they know she is their greatest treasure, and they smile with pleasure, knowing she belongs to them. . . ."

These simple and admirable lines of Prado evoke the emotion, as I have already said, felt by a simple man who suddenly becomes rich beyond his dreams. . . . We wanted indeed to share Gabriela with our brothers in America, and we gave her to other nations that they might know and love her. . . .

We thus unselfishly fulfilled the noblest of missions: we deprived ourselves of a jewel that others might also enjoy its brilliance and its charm. . . .

And how, indeed, would it have been possible to keep for only one small country all her wealth of genius; how would it have been possible to imprison her between the Pacific Ocean and our lofty mountains when rich lands of tropical America and nations of the old world were vying with each other to know her? . . . This explains the secret of our attitude as we followed, with pleased look and legitimate pride, the meteoric career of this great poet.

Her first book, *Desolación*, was published in the United States under the auspices of the Instituto de las Españas in New York, and since then she has had close ties with this noble and understanding nation.

Life followed its course, and laurels continued to crown the proud yet humble brow of Gabriela Mistral. America did not suffice. . . . Beyond the seas she won in fact what already belonged to her by right: the homage and understanding of intellectual Europe. . . . Spain, Portugal, Italy, Switzerland, Belgium, and France gloried in her presence. . . . The greatest literary figures of these and other countries were her friends, but she remained always the same; a Christian teacher, simple and human, who once wrote in her own biography:

"I believe in Christianity. . . . With its profound

social sense it can save the nations. . . . I have written as one talking in solitude, because I have lived much alone. . . . I am a country woman; my great loves are religion, land, poetry. . . ."

An inexhaustible wealth of beautiful things could still be said of the life and work of Gabriela Mistral, but my conscience tells me that I must bring my remarks to a close. To do so I have chosen another appreciation from a Chilean pen. . . . Hernán Díaz Arrieta, whom I consider unquestionably one of our most discriminating literary critics, fittingly closes the preface to the second edition of that magnificent combination of poetry and poetic prose, *Desolación*, with the following paragraph:

"A Spaniard said that our people had no poets, that in the Republic of Chile only historians were born. . . . And we believed him. Perhaps it was true. Like rivers which, as they flow down the mountain, gather in passing water from all the streams of the fields, our people did not wish to reach the ocean until they had accumulated a sufficient wealth of water to open a wide and deep channel in the waves of the sea."

And now permit me to tell you of the most recent modest gesture of Gabriela Mistral, which once more attests the great and holy philosophy of her life. . . . A few days ago, the government of Chile asked her to become its diplomatic representative in Central America, with the rank of Minister Plenipotentiary. Gabriela, following her admirable course of humility, declined this honor in order not to interrupt her pleasant pilgrimage through the world, but to fulfill until the end, while she has strength and life, her mission of sister to all America, which gives us today the privilege of hearing her.

She has entitled tonight's address *The Human Geography of Chile*; you will journey with her the length and breadth of my native land, and you will see how poetry and beauty are to be found in our people and in our soil when disclosed and sung by the sensitive soul of a great poet.

Before beginning her lecture, Gabriela Mistral thanked Dr. Rowe for his cordial welcome on the occasion of this, her second visit to the Pan American Union. She added that in the fourteen years that had elapsed since her first visit she had noted with pleasure the increasing influence of the Union and the progress of an indisputable Pan American sentiment, which should be a cause of deep satisfac-

tion to all who, like Dr. Rowe, have devoted their lives to the noble task of promoting closer relations between the American nations.

She recalled that on her first visit to the Union she was accompanied by the late Chilean Ambassador, Don Beltrán Mathieu, and paid tribute to his understanding, his brilliant mind, and his diplomatic activities. Shortly before his death she had the privilege of seeing him in Europe. He was reading Plutarch because, as he said, the classics teach men how to live and how to die.

The noted writer then expressed her gratitude to Señor Huneeus for his introduction, pointing out that they had not only the bond of a common fatherland, but also that of interest in the arts, since Señor Huneeus is a distinguished artist.

She also expressed her pleasure at finding Dr. Pedro de Alba of Mexico, with whom she had a friendship of sixteen years' standing, as Assistant Director of the Pan American Union. Knowing Mexico, she found in everything Mexican the quintessence of Americanism, and therefore when she entered the Pan American Union with Dr. de Alba, she had felt truly at home. She then spoke as follows:

THE HUMAN GEOGRAPHY OF CHILE

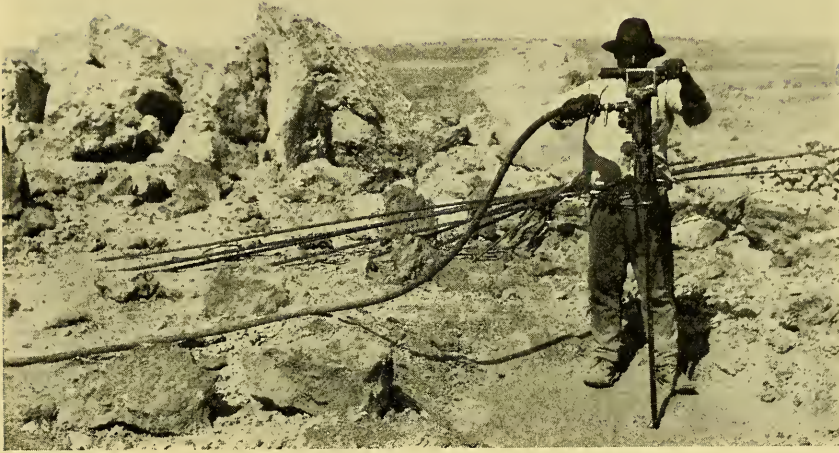
It may be said that Chile has three outstanding aspects: the mythical aspect is the nitrate desert, because taken as a whole it looks as though it were a myth; the romantic aspect is the chaotic labyrinthine region of transverse valleys and southern archipelagos; and in between lies the Central Valley, with its classic aspect. Or, if you prefer, our territory may be likened to an urn, to be grasped by two useful yet at the same time absurd handles: the nitrate pampa and the southern archipelagos: the handle that burns, and the handle that chills.

The nitrate pampa

Chile begins with the nitrate pampa. One of those border wars from which no country seems to have been free, a war short like brothers' quarrels, won us this sort of nitrate kingdom, unique in the world for its extent. The story of this nitrate, suitable for a schoolbook, that is, for children, might be told somewhat like this:

A certain place in the world had as its lot an earthen crust devoid of any grace of vegetation, any tenderness of water. This region is more bald, if such a thing is possible, than its neighboring mountains, and makes an unusual pause or parenthesis of emptiness between two fertile zones. In color it is a bleak whitish gray, when it is not a dazzling reflection of the sun. Its air is so dry that it breaks the rock or the native saltpeter into chunks; it looks like a mangy beast, with its spots of half-scorched plants. As a whole, it resembles an artist's feverish dream. But if you lift your eyes they see, like a relief from penance, the blue sky, whose pure curved arch is the gift of this very aridity; and on the lofty plateau there is a quality that assaults one's whole being and forces it to the utmost limit, but which leaves it at the end strengthened by the trial. Our pampa dweller says, in praise of his implacable desert: "Here not even the dead decay." And that is true: nitrate and dry air preserve the dead as the priests of the god Ra preserved the Pharaohs. Living men, with more reason, neither touch nor breathe decay in the tremendously pure atmosphere of the nitrate pampa. It is a kind of protective genius which preserves men from decadence and degeneration and this fact about that most ordinary commodity, nitrate, makes it more wonderful than the most beautiful myth.

The lumps of nitrate, ugly and gray, guard the secret or sesame of fertility, and offer it to the poor, undernourished, or



ON THE NITRATE PAMPA

"The lumps of nitrate, ugly and gray, guard the secret or sesame of fertility."

worn out lands afflicting this planet. Yet that desert, in a far corner of the earth, is still the parent of the best wheat harvest in Egypt, doubles the clusters of grapes on Italian vines, or remakes the exhausted soil of the orchards on European farms. Like a penitent saint, the nitrate pampa distills from its misfortune the fortune of men whose face it has never seen; a poet might call it the naked Christ of the earth.

The pampa is burned by its own virtues, as happens with all excessive gifts. It does not know the soothing touch of broad rivers, which would sweeten its clay as much as the sun burns it. At the most it receives the slight dampness brought by the *camanchaca*, a mist neither heavy nor frequent. Its good qualities turn out to be its punishment, and if in geology there should be, as some men believed in the Middle Ages or Ruskin imagined in his *Ethics of the Dust*, a moral sense and a moral

trace, this region would belong to the penitential order that ends in complete destruction.

Life in the first nitrate pampa, the beginning of its exploitation, and the sacrifice of Chilean workers in this area of heat and thirst, have often made me think of the *Motivo* of Rodó entitled *The Granite Plain*.

You remember that the Inner Will took three children to a stony desert and ordered them to prepare the ground for the seed he held in his hand. One child gnawed at the stone until he had dug a hole for it. The Inner Will ordered the next to gather earth on his tongue from the wind. The third wept over the handful of soil in which the seed had been planted till it sprouted and grew into a lofty tree, strong and luxuriant.

That is how the first grass came to grow on the desert: The attempt cost the faith-

ful a premature old age; their heads grew hoary and their bodies shrank to skin and bones.

This parable of Rodó tells the story of the first mining camps, and, even more accurately, of our first cities in the nitrate region. Where earth, air, and sun seemed to shout a triple "No" to the poor prospector, and again "No" to him who erected shelters for a camp, both these stubborn people, goaded by that veto, replied "Yes" with all their soul and body.

That is how Iquique and Antofagasta were born, and thanks to that effort they exist. But the race emerged from the adventure not decrepit, but safe and sound.

Europe, which knows hardly anything about us, and Asia, which also has not seen our face, know us from their business dealings with our mysterious nitrate; Chile is called by the whole world "the land of nitrate." The Latin America at our borders usually considers us another salt which, when chewed, has a harsh, somewhat disagreeable flavor, but which has the good and honored name of will, of the hard Chilean will, of the stubborn Nasco-Araucanian will.

The Central Valley

The European who, in spite of his specialized culture, has his blind spots when it comes to examining maps of continents other than his own, approaches Chile with the idea that he is going to find there only an infernal labyrinth of mountains. If he arrives from across the Andes, he will be struck without warning at Uspallata Pass by the whole epic of the Andes, and this visual and respiratory adventure will last until he reaches the well-named town of Los Andes. The altitudes seize him and leave him by turns, deprive him of the sky and return it to him; they blind him with clouds only to dazzle him immediately thereafter

with the full splendor of the snow. But the sensation-seeking tourist emerges from the mountains after six hours and enters the province of Aconcagua, which is on the way to the main valley. The traveler knows, at last, that Chile is not merely the uninterrupted forest of rock that he imagined. And the trip from Santiago to Puerto Montt, which he should not fail to take, will show him the actual facts about the central plain of Chile, the real home of Chileanism.

All the romanticism of the mountains on one side and of the sea on the other is past and disappears when this plain is reached. This is the region most clearly seen from the airplanes that fly over Chile; it is also the only one drawn on our map without mountain cordons. Physically and administratively, the central plain is Chile.

We say of the regions of the earth that are pleasantly level that they make us want to traverse them on foot, or fly over them like the *Mercury* of Giovanni di Bologna, who perhaps is the perfect pedestrian, for although his heels are ever-winged, he has the feet of a good walker. Our long valley is one of those walkable lands, like a stadium or a track, from which it differs only because of its decided length, its extension into a terrestrial corridor.

This valley includes ten provinces, thus covering almost half the country, and is mildness personified. It has the climate of Mediterranean Europe with its moderate seasons, and is the fruit-growing center of the country, the land of vineyards, peach orchards, apple orchards, and the Araucanian wheat fields. Here there is no trace of the struggle farther north with rocks that stop the plow, with the paltry narrowness of ravines. The panting of the northern Chilean ceases at Santiago, with a deep refreshing breath. It is possible that, if we did not have this spinal column of the valley, the unifying will of our ge-



Photograph by Robert Gerstmann in "Chile"

THE CHILEAN ANDES

"Our eyes are as accustomed to these peaks as they are to our people."

ology, it would have cost us dear to achieve political and moral unity. So the valley, for this reason also, is both the topographical and the moral author of Chile.

The inhabitants of the ten central provinces are natural gardeners, who were led to cultivate the Mediterranean crops by the mildness of the climate that fell to their lot and by the fertility of the soil. These provinces produce vineyards and fruit orchards as naturally as the Argentine pampa produces grass and Scandinavia evergreens. For many years we Chileans considered our garden simply as a source of supply for our table; the garden was a pleasant family institution. But about forty years ago, the farmer engaged in his famous vineyards or in the lumber business, realized the happy fact that to the north lay the American tropics, a storehouse of different and delicious fruits. Then it occurred to the Chilean farmers to export theirs. The first successful attempt was along the Pacific coast and later they

tried their luck, with even more excellent results, in the United States and in Europe.

The botanical geography of the Central Valley then changed abruptly. Gardens advanced province by province to the satisfaction, I should say, of both the soil and the inhabitants. Farming tasks are so pleasant that not only men but women quickly took them up.

Fruit exports saved the country in the nitrate depression and assured our economy against the dark future of that mineral, unfortunately replaced by synthetic nitrate.

I once made a map of Chile for myself somewhat after the mediaeval manner, representing the regions according to that fashion, personifying them as animals or as crops. On this ingenuous map the Central Valley is a long blush of orchards in flower, which beckons to me from beneath the mighty mountains; it is a sort of pink and white avenue running from the Maipo River to the Bío-Bío. The color reminds me of a spring in Traiguén, where once I

arrived unexpectedly while the cherry trees were in flower, with a glory no whit inferior to springtime in Japan.

No matter what country calls us its sons, we love it not only because it has nourished us, but also because it is beautiful. When in my consul's office I read statistics of the fruit trade, the columns of figures turn into a panorama of orchards, extending for league upon league, as if they were the domain of Flora herself. The land of stone then becomes for me an explosion of light; the harsh rocky face of the country becomes a heap of fruit, waiting in the sun to be packed.

When I said that this valley is classic, I was thinking not only of the marked simplicity of its outward aspect, but also of a certain Latin suavity in its customs. The

country folk of the region live as they have for generations, with creole festivals like the Chillán fair, like threshing, harvesting and rodeos. The skilful workmanship of Araucanians is still producing ponchos on Indian looms.

At the southern extreme of this valley, where the stubborn opposition of the Araucanian Indians preserved the forests until fifty years ago, we have had a wave of Teutonic immigration, and so two or three provinces see Germans and Chileans living together. The Germans joined battle against the stubborn forest; they carried their sawmills to the woods, they felled and burned, dispossessing the Chilean pine, the native larch, and the linden from their kingdoms, in order to create the benevolent realm of wheat, barley, and



Courtesy of the Chilean Tourist Bureau

CHILEAN FARMERS

potatoes for the nourishment of mankind.

Yet this Central Valley whose praises I have sung as an idyllic land was the scene of our recent tragedy: it might be called a blow in the solar plexus of Chile. This pleasant Arcady awoke one day to find itself shattered by the vindictiveness of the earth, with the ancient city of Chillán, the birthplace of O'Higgins, completely demolished and the southern capital, Concepción, the center of our finest intellectual life, lying martyred.

The valley was not flooded by the torrents of lava or the traditional rain of ashes that usually accompany volcanic eruptions. But there is no doubt that our volcanoes are responsible for the tragedy. We live on the fire-filled slopes of our cordillera. The masses of granite and ore, as well as the unchanging snows, make us too ready to forget the tragic origin of the Andes, our geology that resolves itself into combat between defensive rock and its enemy, fire.

The central valley lies under the constant gaze of volcanoes, its lofty masters. Their mighty rosary begins in the province of Santiago and loosens a little to the south, but continues uninterrupted. The beauty of these peaks of ours, called *Cherrewes* by the Araucanians, is so overpowering that we cannot hate them, not even now when their anger has razed twenty cities.

Our eyes are as accustomed to these peaks as they are to our people; the landscape of Chile has primarily the background of the cordillera or the accent of a single volcano, the latter more beautiful even than the former because of its individual outline.

Chillán Volcano is one of the most uncouth. We drink its inner heat in famous hot springs. Villarrica is so pure in form that it delights both the mind and the eye, and all travelers compare it to Fuji-

yama. Still farther south, Osorno is another typical volcano, with its likeness to Charlemagne in repose. Thickset Tronador, which continually pours forth not fire, but avalanches of snow, seems a conglomeration of masses. Techado, accurately named, looks like a fantastic roof imagined by a divine mason.

The Chilean, like the Japanese, wars with destiny under the guise of fire, and it is impossible to tell which has the other in check. Although the Chilean retains a trace of Indian mythology, he is above all active by nature and after each earthquake reconstructs his cities and reestablishes his fields with awe-inspiring confidence and tremendous disregard for the treachery of the earth, for he knows that between two catastrophes there is a gap of many years. Our people have a Stoicism not cold, but ardent, such determination to possess and enjoy their land that the fury of the earth can snatch it from their hands for hardly a moment. Down there, even while I am talking to you about them, they have repossessed the land, they are planning and doing. This phenomenon of vitality and enthusiasm is a well-known characteristic of volcanic zones, that least wish to die because the fire makes them more lively, more heroic. Dwelling upon the ruins is not a defect of the Chilean in this crisis. Suffering but not vanquished, he has gone to work with his one good arm, not stopping to look at the other in a sling, because he does not wish to see his own blood and weep.

Patagonia

The central valley disappears into the Gulf of Reloncaví. At this point the sea carried on open warfare with the land, the realm of Neptune against that of Vulcan in a spectacular battle between the two elements. There our southern archipelagos begin, a colossal corrosion of land by

the furious ocean that we ironically call the Pacific. It seems as though tropical and temperate South America, dreading to enter the Antarctic Circle because of its horror of cold, wants to stop at this point and annihilate itself in the vestibule of the icebergs.

How many islands have we between the 41st and the 55th parallels? I asked the question of a Danish whaler, who has crossed this sea from one end to the other and he, who had counted those of his island fatherland, replied, "Madam, in these thousand miles you will find enough to wear out even the most patient."

Another man from Patagonia, full of the appetite for land that cattle men have, also said, "This land ought to be sewed together from here to Llanquihue; it looks like cloth full of holes." And I replied, laughing, that for my part I would loosen all connected lands. I like the archipelago as much as does the man of Chiloé, whose fortune is the fish left stranded by the tide on its sea-bitten shore.

The greatest constellation of islands or the best known lands often rightfully bear names of explorers; sometimes they are named for national heroes who never knew them; occasionally, too, in Brazilian fashion, we have left them their beautiful original Indian names.

This is the land of the whale, the otter, and the seal, and especially the magic home of great flocks of sea birds. When they emigrate they cover the sky and in their passing eclipse the sun, as our Pedro Prado has described in a magnificent poem.

Apparently our land wanted to rise again, dominant and tenacious, and Patagonia extends on the other side of the broken land thanks to the pertinacity of the Cordillera, which has erected its last ramparts there.

After a fantastic passage through a sea

dotted with green islands, like geological sirens, half out the water, one arrives at a curious country of extended plains, gentle and secure. It is our sheep-raising center; it is the region where Argentina and Chile go hand in hand; a small part consists of steppes, another of great flat pastures where, for the first time, our view is not checked by mountains. Only in the northern desert and in this Patagonian plain does the Chilean landscape rest the eye through the sense of well-being imparted by an unlimited horizon.

In these Patagonian solitudes, only one romantic element reminds the inhabitant that this is the far south; the wind, captain of storms, blows over the open spaces like a Nordic god, whipping the vestiges of the southern forests, shaking the city of Magallanes, set down at the middle of the Strait, and shrieking like a mad procession that takes days and weeks to pass. The trees of Dante's tortured forest I found there, in long processions of kneeling bodies; they halted my progress with their march, like giants doing a supernatural penance. The wind does not tolerate anything in its Patagonian kingdom except the everlasting humility of the grass; its war with everything that lifts its head in the wish to prosper in the upper air is a war already won; it finds resistance only in the city, well named for the navigator, and the fishing towns that take refuge in the depths of the fjords or in sheltered bays where the wind arrives somewhat exhausted, like a jaded highwayman.

But this pasture land is the region of our most easily acquired wealth: the sheep require only a few shepherds, and after they have been shorn or slaughtered, the cold storage plants maintain in this region, which the European believes to be poverty stricken, a constant wealth greater than that of our nitrate pampa.

Tourists have begun to discover the

exotic beauty of that corner of the world known as Patagonia. Summer nights there are only an indescribable dusk until midnight; the southern lights cover the sky with blood-red flames, and the fury of the wind is another mighty phenomenon which has been described in beautiful pages by great European geographers.

Conclusion

In Spain there is a section condescendingly given a most appropriate name: it is called *Extremadura*, and is a land of steppes, belonging to both Spain and Portugal. Sometimes I have thought that the early explorers might have given the same name to Chile, in comparison with the rest of America. *Extremadura* it might be called, remote and rough, difficult and isolated. But they gave it the name of *Chile*, from an Indian word meaning snow, or perhaps from an onomatopoeic word which imitates the trill of a bird.

By our situation off at one end of the world, we, like Australia or Alaska, are condemned to vegetate obscurely in the depths of our mountain valleys, without any outlet toward a continent which delights in and enjoys plains and wide valleys. We might have been narrowly national, even regional; we might have renounced the great honor of having a moral influence on the life of people with a common ancestry.

However, we did not, even in the interior, accept this fate which was expected of us from our geography: we have done away with regional differences until we brought the various parts of our country into agreement and reduced the differences to unity, through railways and coasting vessels. With respect to international matters, by a slow and sure advance like that of miners in a tunnel, we have made our extreme position one of the influential centers of Spanish America and, in rebel-

lion against the captivity imposed by the Andine wall, turned our rocky Cordillera into both a pedestal and a stepping stone.

The Chileans are a great spiritual reagent, people who act as pioneers for the common race, who look toward the Atlantic and the Caribbean with a passionate desire for a united America. The country that has been called "the last corner of the world" has created a sort of continental current, finding two channels for expansion in Chilean pedagogy and in the publication and distribution of American books.

Those who discovered us did well not to name us according to our latitudinal misfortunes. The history of Chile, which is an expression of our consciousness, is a violent reaction against the tyranny of geography.

Ibero-America seems to have, as though it were a futuristic boat, three prows: in the middle, Brazil; in the south, Argentina and Chile; and one on the Caribbean Sea, in either the horn of Mexico or the pivot of Cuba. They are the centers of three varied Latin American minds, but they are not, thank God, rival prows and they do not take three separate courses; we might say, taking this figure of speech more seriously, that they are turned not toward the sea, but toward the heart of the Continent, because the adventure that we now seek is our own, the realization of a Latin American race.

We are in somewhat the same case as the legendary archer: "At what are you aiming, what do you seek in the sky with your taut bow?" the boy with the arrow was asked, "the flock of birds has passed." The boy replied, "I know it. I am pointing at my own heart by looking at the sky, and I am aiming at it, not to kill it, but to keep it alert and vigilant."

And soon, apparently, we Latin Americans will no longer have many flocks of Europeans storks to follow with the idea of learning from them the secret of universal flight, because Europe appears to have no further love for universality. Our ethics, which will be peace, and our social justice, which will be Christian, will be enough to make us happy, honorable, and also great.

The second emancipation of Ibero-America, much more real than the other, aims at the horizon, not because of the so-called decadence of Europe, which is non-existent, but because of the insanity of Europe. Alert like the archer, we shall need to watch the flight of the European storks that wish to fly once more into the west, which is not suited to them, because perhaps here they would die before they succeeded in building their nests. . . .

At the conclusion of this address, given with the simple dignity that distinguishes Gabriela Mistral, the meeting was brought to a close with two of her unpublished poems, on Mt. Osorno and Laja Falls. They were read by an old friend and compatriot, Sr. Francisco Aguilera, a member of the Pan American Union staff. Each was preceded by a brief introduction by the author:

Mt. Osorno

After fourteen years abroad, I returned to my native country, and avoiding the high Uspallata Pass, I entered by the southern route. Although I have lived in Patagonia, I was unaquainted with portions of the southern countryside, the fantastic mirage of waters, snow-covered volcanoes, and waterfalls extending from Cautín to Llanquihue.

Prints, photographs, and watercolors had given me the illusion that I knew it. But a region, as our people say, is a *living thing*; it is composed not only of forms and colors but, like babies, has a special per-

fume, breathed sweetly in the face of its friend, and this exhalation has a magic result. It is a magic like no other in all America. The land of Europe seems to have had the soul taken out of it by agricultural and industrial exploitation, and even in its perfect aspects, it seems to have killed the best when it destroyed the supernatural overtones. The land of America, like the Persian archangels, is so strong that it almost wounds, that it almost kills; it intoxicates us, charms us, and purifies us with its violence, whether of water or sun.

Mt. Osorno lords it over the city of the same name, to such an extent that its shadow falls on the city streets. Even luxury-loving tourists, incapable of walking and hill-climbing, enjoy it and caress it with their eyes from hotel terraces.

The volcano, in the unpropitious month of May, made me wait two days before it consented to appear. I courted it hourly, until it doffed its soft cap and fleecy cloak. The third day it rose to view like a gladiator, and I saw it as a whole, from its broad base, spread out like the roots of a banyan tree, to its topmost crystal point.

My eyes had never before seen an isolated Chilean peak. Born in the midst of hills, an emigrant from a labyrinth of stone, my experience was like that of the European who said of trees that "they hide the forest." The cordillera is elusive, flees from itself, and in the midst of it one has no consciousness of it. The poet pays for what is given him, even though he may pay only in copper coin; so I left there, in a short poem, payment for my volcano.

The occasion was not only one of looking and praising, it was also one of begging. We are the beggars *par excellence* of this world, we women and children. While I gazed at the mountain, the embodiment of courage, of vigor, dominating the landscape, and enjoyed its ease and grace as a great lord, as an abode of waters and of



LAKE LLANQUIHUE AND MT. OSORNO

weather, my heart filled to overflowing with prayers; I prayed for my people, and what I asked of it combined terrestrial and supernatural favors, for this is proper prayer.

Verhaeren the Belgian once gave the most beautiful definition of love that I have ever read: "To love is to have confidence even to madness." It occurs to me that this stage of confidence is like that of the poet with the person or thing fallen into his hands: mad with confidence, he talks familiarly with his object, though it be a mountain, father of waters; unrestrained in his familiarity, he turns it around as he pleases, and gives it all the names that come to his mind; mad with intimacy, he calls it relative, friend, or child. One has either to laugh at the feverish poet, or be moved and weep; here is that man Verhaeren, drunk with confidence in the world.

With women, this capacity for confidence goes even farther: we are born with a natural maternal instinct for all things, big, middling, and little. Men, by nature hierarchical, never go as far as we do. . . .

VOLCÁN OSORNO

Volcán Osorno, David
que te hondeas a tí mismo,
Mayoral en llanada verde,
Mayoral ancho de tu gentío.

Salto que ya va a saltar,
y que se queda cautivo,
huemul que al indio cegaba,
huemul de nieves, albino.

Volcán del Sur, gracia nuestra,
no te tuve y eras mío,
no me tenías y era tuya,
en el valle donde he nacido.

Ahora caes a mis ojos,
ahora bañas mis sentidos
y juego a hacerte la ronda,
foca blanca, viejo pingüino. . .

Cuerpo que reluces, cuerpo
a nuestros ojos caído,
que en el agua del Llanquihue
comulgan, bebiendo, tus hijos,

Volcán Osorno, el fuego es bueno
y lo llevamos como tú mismo,
el fuego de la tierra india
al nacer, no recibimos.

Guarda las viejas regiones,
salva a tu santo gentío,
salva indiada de leñadores,
guía chilotas que son marinos.

Guía a pastores con tu relumbre,
Volcán Osorno, viejo novillo,
levanta el cuello de tus mujeres,
empina gloria de tus niños.

Boyero blanco, de yugo blanco,
dobla cebadas, provoca trigos!
Da a tu imagen la abundancia,
rebana el hambre con gemido.

Despeña tú las voluntades,
vuélvete carne, vuélvete vivo,
quema tú nuestras derrotas
y apresura lo que no vino!

Volcán Osorno, pregón de piedra,
peán que oímos y no oímos,
quema la vieja desventura,
mata a la muerte como Cristo!

Laja Falls

I do not know whether living is a good
or a bad dish; that is something for men
to find out; we women are contented just
with living.

But I do know something, in my dark
groping as a woman without knowledge,
namely that there is in all of us, that there
works on all of us, a kind of vital counter-
instinct, of counter-life, which finds expres-
sion in a violent desire to flee from our-
selves and lose ourselves and disappear,
swallowed up in something greater, much
greater, than ourselves.

On various occasions (too many to count)
I have experienced this desire, this instinct
for simultaneous life and death, to be cut
off at my roots or to be destroyed without
pain, carried away without return to a

shore that I cannot name and of which I
have no conception.

In *Laja Falls* I have described this ec-
stasy of losing myself, this self-treason.
The falls that tempted me were good;
they were lovely with all loveliness. And
to lose one's self in them seemed the most
pleasant thing in the world, in that hour
when one was blinded by the spray and
deafened by the roar.

There still exists an inherently American
landscape, American light, American air,
even in Argentina, with all its infusion of
new blood. For many years yet my semi-
industrialized country will preserve in its
forests, its waters, its stones, something of
the original Indian hovering over it, perme-
ating everything, half real, half phantasm.
In that indefinable tingling sensation that
one has in the south, in that indefinable echo
and reecho from the rugged cordillera, in
that indefinable startled silence, our Indian,
both Araucanian and Diaguita, passes in-
visible but undeniable, and one has to have
very dull ears not to hear him.

Those who believe only their eyes con-
sider the Indian element eliminated from
our environment, however much it may
be beating in their own pulses. We poets
feed on folklore and mythology; by this we
live, and when we let go of it we die. We
poets are faithful to our origins, firmly
loyal to the founts of our inspiration; it
never occurs to us to be such renegades
as to deny or hide them.

SALTO DEL LAJA

Salto del Laja, viejo tumulto,
hervor de las flechas indias,
despeño de bellos vivos,
majador de tus orillas.

Avientas las rocas, rompes
tu tesoro, te avientas tú misma,
y por vivir y por morir,
agua india, te precipitas.

Cae y de caer no acaba
la cegada maravilla,

cae el viejo fervor terrestre,
la tremenda Araucanía.

Juegas cuerpo y juegas alma;
cacs entera, agua suicida;
caen contigo los tiempos,
caen gozos con agonías,
cae la mártir indiada,
cae mi carne, cae mi vida.

Las bestias cubres de espumas:
ciega las liebres tu neblina,
y hieren cohetes blancos
mis brazos y mis rodillas.

Te oyen caer los que talan,
los que hacen pan y que caminan,
los que duermen o están muertos
o dan su alma o cavan minas,
o en los pastos y las lagunas
cazan el coipo y la chinchilla.

Cae el ancho amor vencido,
medio dolor, medio dicha;
cae en ímpetu de madre
que a sus hijos hallaría.

Y te entiendo y no te entiendo,
Salto del Laja, vocería,
vaina de antiguos sollozos
y aleluya que cae rendida.

Me voy con el río Laja,
me voy con las blancas víboras,
me voy por el cuerpo de Chile;
doy vida y voluntad mías,
juego sangre, juego sentidos
y me entrego ganada y perdida.

Salto del Laja, pecho blanco
y desgarrado, Agua Antígona,
mundo cayendo sin derrota,
Madre, cayendo sin mancilla. . . .



LAJA FALLS

Brazilian-American Agreements

DR. OSWALDO ARANHA, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil, reached Washington on February 9, in response to an invitation extended to him on January 9, 1939 by President Roosevelt in which reference was made to the close and friendly ties that have traditionally united Brazil and the United States and to the various questions of importance in which the two Governments are equally interested. "Senhor Aranha's visit has been especially gratifying to the Government of the United States. His distinguished service as his country's Ambassador in Washington is recalled with particular pleasure and he returned to the United States as a friend visiting friends," said the Department of State in its announcement of the results of his visit on March 9. He was accompanied by Sr. João Carlos Muniz, Assistant to the Minister; Dr. Marcos de Sousa Dantas, banking expert from the Bank of Brazil; Dr. Luis Simões Lopes, President of the Public Service Commission; and Sr. Sergio de Lima e Silva, secretary of the delegation.

Dr. Aranha sailed for home on March 11. Meantime a series of discussions on all topics of mutual interest was held between the Minister and the officials and experts of the Government of Brazil accompanying him, and officials of the Government of United States. In these conversations the area of possible collaboration was carefully explored and important decisions on matters of mutually beneficial cooperation were reached.

On March 9, at a simple ceremony at the Department of State, Dr. Aranha and the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, exchanged notes outlining the policies and actions to be under-

taken by the two countries to foster continued mutually beneficial economic relations.

Dr. Aranha began by saying:

The Brazilian Government presents through Your Excellency, to your Government, its thanks for the courtesies which were extended to me and to my companions during my visit to your country.

Your Excellency may be assured that my grateful recollection of the period during which I had the honor of being my country's Ambassador to the United States, and the amity of my people towards the American people and the mutual confidence that exists between our two Governments, have been enhanced by the effects of the new and expressive demonstrations of cooperation and of friendship towards Brazil which we have witnessed during the course of this visit.

In acknowledging the letter Mr. Hull said in part:

I have received with genuine appreciation Your Excellency's very friendly note of March 8, 1939 with reference to the matters which I have had the privilege of discussing with you during your visit to Washington. I need not assure you of the personal satisfaction which it has been for me to cooperate with you in a comprehensive survey of all phases of the questions interesting our two countries, and I am convinced that the traditionally close and cordial relations which have always existed between the people of Brazil and those of the United States will be materially strengthened as a result of the decisions taken during your visit.

As a result of Dr. Aranha's conversations in Washington, the Government of Brazil plans to free the exchange market for commercial transactions and to facilitate the transfer of an equitable return upon investments made in Brazil by United States citizens under normal conditions in the Brazilian balance of international payments. In order to facilitate this improved exchange situation the Export-Import Bank will extend appropriate acceptance credits to meet amounts due

American exporters for imports from the United States. Moreover, the Minister has indicated that it is the desire of the Government of Brazil to observe a general policy which will encourage the cooperation of United States citizens who have invested or who in the future may invest their capital and technical experience in the development of Brazilian resources and national economy.

To aid in improving Brazil's transportation facilities and the development of her other domestic undertakings designed to increase the productive capacity of the Brazilian nation and her trade with the United States, the Export-Import Bank will cooperate with the American manufacturers and exporters in supplying the requirements for these developments by participating with such manufacturers and exporters, to the extent that its funds may be available for such purposes, in the extension of credits of a tenor calculated to enable the Government of Brazil and the Banco do Brasil to create the necessary exchange without disrupting normal purchases from the United States, or too rapidly depleting Brazil's supply of foreign exchange. Dr. Aranha said:

Substantial quantities of industrial goods produced in the United States are urgently needed to accomplish the purposes envisaged but the acquisition of such goods against cash payments would seriously affect the ability of Brazil to continue normal purchases from the United States and would strain my Government's foreign exchange resources. To obviate the inconvenience of restricting normal trade and the danger of too rapidly depleting Brazil's supply of foreign exchange, the Brazilian Government will need the longer term credits indicated, all of which will be used for the purchase of American products.

The Export-Import Bank will undertake to establish acceptance credits for the Banco do Brasil in order to assist the Government of Brazil in its purpose to discontinue official control over foreign exchange operations in so far as such control

affects commercial relations between Brazil and the United States. Such credits will be provided directly or through American commercial banks satisfactory to the Banco do Brasil and the Import-Export Bank of Washington, and shall be repayable in instalments over a period not exceeding 24 months.

The details of the transaction will hereafter be arranged between the Export-Import Bank, or the approved commercial banks, and the Banco do Brasil, but it is understood that all drafts shall be liquidated on or before June 28, 1941.

The United States Government is also interested in cooperating with the Government of Brazil in every practicable way in the study and development of agricultural products and production which will complement production in the United States. In this regard legislation has already been enacted which authorizes the loan of experts of the Government of the United States to assist the Government of Brazil in specialized agricultural studies and developments.¹ Plans have also been formulated for surveys of agricultural possibilities, including the development of tropical hardwoods, rubber, and other products, which surveys could readily include the coincidental study of many additional native products of Brazil. Draft legislation which would provide authorization for these surveys is now before the Congress.

The Government of Brazil indicated its desire to organize and operate a Central Reserve Bank, and the Treasury Department is prepared to lend appropriate assistance to that end. Moreover, the President has stated that he is prepared to make a recommendation to the Congress for suitable authorization to place at the disposal of the Government of Brazil gold up to the amount of \$50,000,000 to serve as

¹ *This law authorizes the loan of government experts in any field to any Latin American country.*—EDITOR.

possible supplementary assets in case of need, such amount as is drawn upon to be repaid from Brazil's future production of gold, Government purchases of which are estimated at an average of 8 tons annually.

Letters exchanged between the Minister and the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States and the President of the Import-Export Bank, Washington, were annexed to the notes of Dr. Aranha and Mr. Hull. The total amount of the credits to be granted Brazil by the United States was estimated by the press at \$120,000,000.

Cooperation in many other fields of activity was also profitably discussed with the Minister and the officials and experts of the Brazilian Government who accompanied him to this country.

The Minister has likewise engaged in discussions with the Foreign Bondholders Protective Council, Inc., relative to the status of the Brazilian dollar debt and has announced that the Government of Brazil intends to resume payments on July 1, 1939, on account of interest and amortization on such debts in accordance with a transitional arrangement, the details of which will be made known following his return to Rio de Janeiro. The Minister has also stated that it is the hope and expectation of his Government that with the improvement in its foreign commerce which it now foresees, a permanent settlement which will be equitable and satisfactory to all interests involved will follow upon the expiration of the temporary arrangement.

The Inca Garcilaso de la Vega

1539—April 12—1939

JOSÉ DE LA RIVA AGÜERO

THE Inca Garcilaso de la Vega is the patriarch of typically Peruvian literature and because of his fame and his emotional reactions, is unquestionably the dominant figure in our early history. Everything in Garcilaso, from his ancestry, his character and the circumstances of his life, to the subject matter of his books, his imaginative gifts and the unmistakable style with which he embellishes his writing, unites to make him the perfect representative, the fitting symbol, of Peru and the Peruvian soul.

Condensed from an address published as the introduction to Garcilaso de la Vega Inca: "Páginas Escogidas," Primera serie No. 3, Biblioteca de Cultura Peruana.

A blind spirit of detraction and envy first gave rise to the statement, afterward repeated by the ignorant, that all the conquistadors of Peru were of humble station. Undoubtedly most of them were of lowly origin, because magnates are not the pioneers in colonial adventures; but the careful student of those times knows that among the companions of Pizarro there were such men of noble lineage as Ribera el Viejo, Juan Tello de Sotomayor and Juan Tello de Guzmán. Attracted by the magical news and the incredible richness of the booty, younger sons of the most distinguished families came one after the other to Peru; and among them was Cap-



A STREET IN CUZCO

When Garcilaso was born in Cuzco on April 12, 1539, the Incan wall at the left was in place. At the right is a palace, built in colonial times, when parts of Incan structures were often incorporated in new edifices.

tain Garcilaso de la Vega, the father of our author. Between campaigns he lived in Cuzco with a young Incan princess, Doña Isabel Chimpu Ocllo, a granddaughter of the former monarch, Túpac Yupanqui. To them was born on April 12, 1539, a son, Garcilaso de la Vega, also called Gómez Suárez de Figueroa in honor of his famous great-grandfather.

The wealthy Captain Garcilaso lived in splendor. From a letter of the Marquis de Cañete, then viceroy, we learn that at one time 150 to 200 comrades daily dined at the captain's table, in addition to various prominent gentlemen who were especially invited, friends, and poor relatives whom he lodged, clothed and provided with mounts from his extensive stables. He was an affable man, very humane and kindly to his Indian vassals, even to the point of reducing considerably the tributes due him. Amid these magnificent surroundings of lordly luxury the mestizo child grew in wisdom and affec-

tion. Incan relatives, who frequently came to visit his mother, and the numerous Indian servants entertained him in childhood with stories and legends. They told him of the exploits and ancient expeditions of his ancestors, the Incan monarchs, of the appearance of the god Huiracocha, of the sacred bird *corequenque*, of omens, spells and secret medicinal herbs. His aged greatuncle, Inca Cusi Huallpa, recounted the deeds of the unconquered Huayna Cápac. Two decrepit old men who had been captains of this sovereign's guard often told, sobbing, of the mysterious auguries that forecast the fall of the empire. Garcilaso's mother and his uncle sometimes recalled the sorrow and terror of their early years when Atahualpa was captured and killed. At night the servants used to show him in the stars the celestial alpaca, which is part of the Milky Way, and in the spots on the moon they pointed out traces of the mythological fox who fell in love with the goddess Quilla. And they



MACHU-PICCHU

The grandeur of its setting on a mountain top enhances the impressiveness of this ancient city, perhaps the finest of all architectural remains left by the native Peruvian races.

told him how the rain falls because the jar borne by a divine maiden is broken by her brother with a crash of thunder, and how every afternoon Father Sun disappears in the distant shores of the west, plunging like a valiant swimmer into the inexhaustible waters of the great ocean upon which floats the broad land of Tahuantinsuyu.

From babyhood Garcilaso had as tutor Juan de Alcobaza, a devoted and exemplary gentleman. In the rooms and halls of the palace the guests of the house discussed the episodes of the conquest; the

tremendous siege of Cuzco by the Inca Manco; the assassination of Francisco Pizarro; his sayings and customs; famous battles; the alluring and inaccessible Land of Spice and El Dorado, hidden in far distant regions; the disquieting news of the crotchety viceroy, and his recent ordinances that, under pretext of alleviating the conditions of the Indians, took away the estates of the most doughty conquistadors.

Cuzco was then uniquely picturesque. The Indians preserved their special garb, peculiar symbols, and diverse forms of

headgear according to the regions and provinces from which they came. Those of Incan blood, even if impoverished, wore striped mantles made of soft vicuña and vizcacha wool.

The years rolled by. The young Garcilaso who, with the sons of other conquistadors, had received lessons in Latin from five transient tutors, began to attend regularly the class of Canon Juan de Cuéllar, a native of Medina del Campo. With his fellow pupils, some of them Incan youths but mostly, like himself, mestizo sons of leading landholders, he would go uproariously singing through the streets and suburbs of Cuzco. On one of his excursions outside the city he went to see Carbajal's body, quartered and hung on the pillories erected on the four great highways. He admired the oxen brought from Spain and set to plowing before a throng of astonished Indians. He wandered through the subterranean passages of the great citadel of Sacsayhuaman, some of which had already fallen in. He saw much of his close Incan relatives. He journeyed to the rich valley of Yucay, to his father's estate of Cotanera, near the Apurímac, where he was present at the pagan obsequies of an Incan chief, marked by many plaintive songs and waving banners; and between 1550 and 1554 he travelled over a large part of what is now Bolivia. Through these journeys and contacts of his lively youth he garnered the authentic and first-hand impressions of the territory and legends of ancient Peru that in his later life animated his vivid *Comentarios Reales* (*Royal Commentaries*).

On St. John's Day and Christmas the Indian dignitaries brought to Cuzco their tribute to the landholders, and at the command of his mother young Garcilaso kept the accounts on *quipos*, the bunches of varicolored cords in which knots were tied to represent numbers. This circumstance

shows that Doña Isabel was still mistress of the conquistador's home, but only a short time later she had to relinquish her place to a Spanish rival. The government was continually urging the landholders to marry and thus promote the stability and morality of the colony and increase the white population. Captain Garcilaso, now more than 50 years old, decided to contract marriage with a Castilian lady of his own rank.

His father's marriage was a deep sorrow to the illegitimate son. He saw his mother, whom he seems to have loved deeply, humiliated and estranged. Garcilaso, however, continued to live in his father's house, beloved and cherished by the warrior, whom he served as secretary. About this time his father gave him a coca farm called Havisca at Paucartambo.

Garcilaso did not cease to visit his mother and his Incan relatives or to enjoy associating with prominent Indians, who looked on him with the affection due a descendant of the imperial line and of one of the leaders among the invincible white men. In conversations with these Indians, he tells us, "they explained to me at length their laws and system of government, comparing it with that of the Spaniards. They told me how their kings proceeded in peace and war, in what manner they treated their vassals and how they were served by them. Moreover, they talked to me, as to their own children, of their religion and rites, ceremonies and sacrifices, feasts and the manner of celebrating them. They described their cruelties and superstitions, their good and bad omens. Indeed, I may say that they told me of everything in their community life. If I had but written it down at that time this history would be more copious."

One day, when Garcilaso was 16 or 17 years old, he was talking with his Incan relatives about their kings and ancient



Painting by F. Cossio del Pomar

THE FLUTE-PLAYER

Now as in the days of Garcilaso, who mentioned "that flute which calls from the hill with passion and tenderness," the Peruvian Indian plays his well-loved instrument.

ways when the oldest of them, Inca Cusi Huallpa, satisfied the youth's curiosity by telling him, in a voice trembling with emotion, as if he were making a sacred revelation, the radiant legend of Manco Cápac and his wife, the children of the Sun, who brought civilization to the Indian world and founded Cuzco. The reminiscences of the deposed princes continued in chorus, with religious fervor and racking bitterness. "After speaking of past greatness and prosperity they began to talk of the present state of affairs; they bewailed their dead kings, whose empire had passed to others and whose government was at an end. And remembering what had been lost, they always ended with sobs and tears, saying, 'From rulers we have become vassals.' Thus in a scene of solemn melancholy, in the pathetic and sublime

desolation of a mysterious dusk, the future historian had imprinted on his soul the secret traditions of his conquered nation.

But in the flower of his youth Garcilaso also participated eagerly in the sports of his Castilian friends and relatives. He was always skilled in riding and hunting and fond of arms, heraldic devices and knightly trappings. The death of his father put an end to this happy life. The estate passed to the legitimate daughters, who died as children in 1564.

Garcilaso, eager to improve his own condition and that of his mestizo brothers and sisters and his mother, who was still living, decided to go to Spain and personally request the royal grace. Before he left his native city he had an opportunity to see the mummies of five of the kings, his ancestors. They had just been discovered

by Polo de Ondegardo, and when Garcilaso went to bid him goodby the former invited him into the room where they had been deposited. Their bodies had been preserved intact, with hands crossed on their breasts. Their skin was smooth, and their eyes were simulated by little gold plates. Garcilaso saw them wrapped in their sumptuous vestments, the royal bands around their brows. Only one of them showed an uncovered head, white as snow. Garcilaso touched the rigid hand of Huayna Cápac. In the following days the sacred mummies, shrouded in white, were carried through the city so that the most prominent gentlemen might look upon them in their homes. As the mummies went by the Spaniards doffed their caps, for these were the bodies of kings, and the Indians knelt in their manner, making great demonstrations of adoration and bursting into groans and tears. Such was the last memory, impressive and funereal, left on Garcilaso by his native Cuzco.

Early in 1561 we find him in Seville; later he went to Montilla and Extremadura to become acquainted with his Spanish relatives.

Encouraged by their help and influence Garcilaso, full of illusions, set out for Madrid and the court, where he was at the close of 1561. His petitions having been rebuffed and his hope of help at court crushed, Garcilaso enlisted in the army. He is the first Peruvian known to have fought in Europe.

About 1579 he turned up in Seville, which was to be for some time his favorite residence and which he called "enchantress of all who know her."

His mind experienced a profound change. After a youth devoted to horses and martial weapons, his maturity was attracted to the delights of study and writing. In his early years he was fond of books of chivalry, but the warnings

against them in the *Historia Imperial* of Pero Mejía cured him completely of this frivolity. Among the authors whose works were his recreation he always enjoyed the beauties of the great Italian poets and prose writers, especially Boyardo, Ariosto, and Boccaccio, whose works he frequently re-read, but every day he became more and more inclined to the serious study of history and philosophy. He perfected his knowledge of Latin, of which he had acquired only a smattering in Cuzco. Military comrades and veterans began to be replaced in his circle of friends by priests and monks of greater virtue and learning. He obtained a papal bull authorizing him to bring to Madrid the remains of his father, whom he buried in the church of San Isidoro. His devotion rose to such a point that, bidding farewell to his worldly ambitions and to the hope of martial glory and material fortune that he had long cherished, he entered the Church.

About 1589 Garcilaso moved from Montilla to Córdoba. He lived modestly and quietly in the parish of Santa María la Mayor, or the Sagrario, far from the palace of his relatives, the Suárez de Figueroa. As was fitting in so devout a cleric, he frequented chiefly the society of priests, canons, and friars. His long and tranquil old age was passed amidst the gravity of this ecclesiastical world.

Feeling the profound two-fold nostalgia of both exile and old age, he relived the memories of his native land and his early years. He submerged himself pleasantly in his memories like one who, after a long absence, follows the gentle course of a well-known stream. He saw with the eyes of his mind the large squares and the gloomy lanes of the Incan capital. He recalled one by one the palaces of the conquistadors, the names of his schoolmates, the sections of the city, and the Indian dis-



Painting by José Sabogal

VARAYOC, OR INDIAN MAYOR

He holds the silver-mounted staff of office.

tricts. From this deep longing was born the book called the *Comentarios Reales*, which is steeped in tenderness. It is not too much to say that this book began the literary *genre* of childhood reminiscences that we believe so modern.

He completed the book with deliberate enjoyment. From 1586 he had been meditating and preparing it. In 1595 he told Don Martín de Contreras, the nephew of the Governor of Nicaragua, how far advanced it was. Later he wrote to his friends and Indian and mestizo relatives requesting many data. With these, with the fragments of Father Valera's writings given him by the Jesuits, and with the Spanish chronicles already published he laid the foundation of his work, which he animated and crowned by his genius and his exquisite sentiment.

After the first part was published in 1609 the fame of the author grew and spread.

The attacks of illness that he had suffered since 1590 did not hinder the prosecution and conclusion of his work, whose second and last part was finished in 1613, although it was not printed until after his death. He had bought and rebuilt for his burial place a chapel in the cathedral, once the famous mosque.

Garcilaso lived with the luxury that he believed appropriate to his station in life. We learn from his will that he had six servants, to some of whom he had given his own surname in lordly fashion. According to the inventory of his property he used gilt plate, and his rooms were adorned with tapestries, cushions covered with crimson silk, and desks and sideboards of oak. As a survival of his military years, he preserved arquebuses, armor and other military apparatus. In the elderly priest the warlike captain of former years still lived.

After a prolonged illness, which left his mind unaffected until the end, he died peacefully on April 22, 1616, at the age of 77.

To appreciate the true character of the Incan kingdom we must go to Cieza, but before and above all, to Garcilaso. He gives us completely the eternal charm of Peru, the gentleness of its vicuñas, the wild peace of its mountains, and the softness of its coastal oases. How deeply Peruvian is the scene in the *Comentarios* when the Virgin of the Sun intercedes for the Moyobamba rebels! Genuinely Peruvian are his maidens and those processions of women and children who, bearing green boughs in their hands and covering the road with fragrant herbs, welcome the victorious and magnanimous Inca, the friend of the poor. Among the cyclopean masses of overwhelming stonework, frowning and impenetrable as the face of Atahualpa, Garcilaso knows how to strike the

note of Indian tenderness. In him and only in him we find the authentic entirety, the imperishable stamp of that peculiar state, at once simple and artificial, refined and childlike, expansive and benign, martial and patriarchal, which played in the native America of the South the role of vast idyllic China in Asia and of the solemn Egypt of the Pharaohs in the dawn of Mediterranean civilization, just as Mexico in the North combined features of sumptuous and varied India, astronomical Chaldea and sanguinary Assyria.

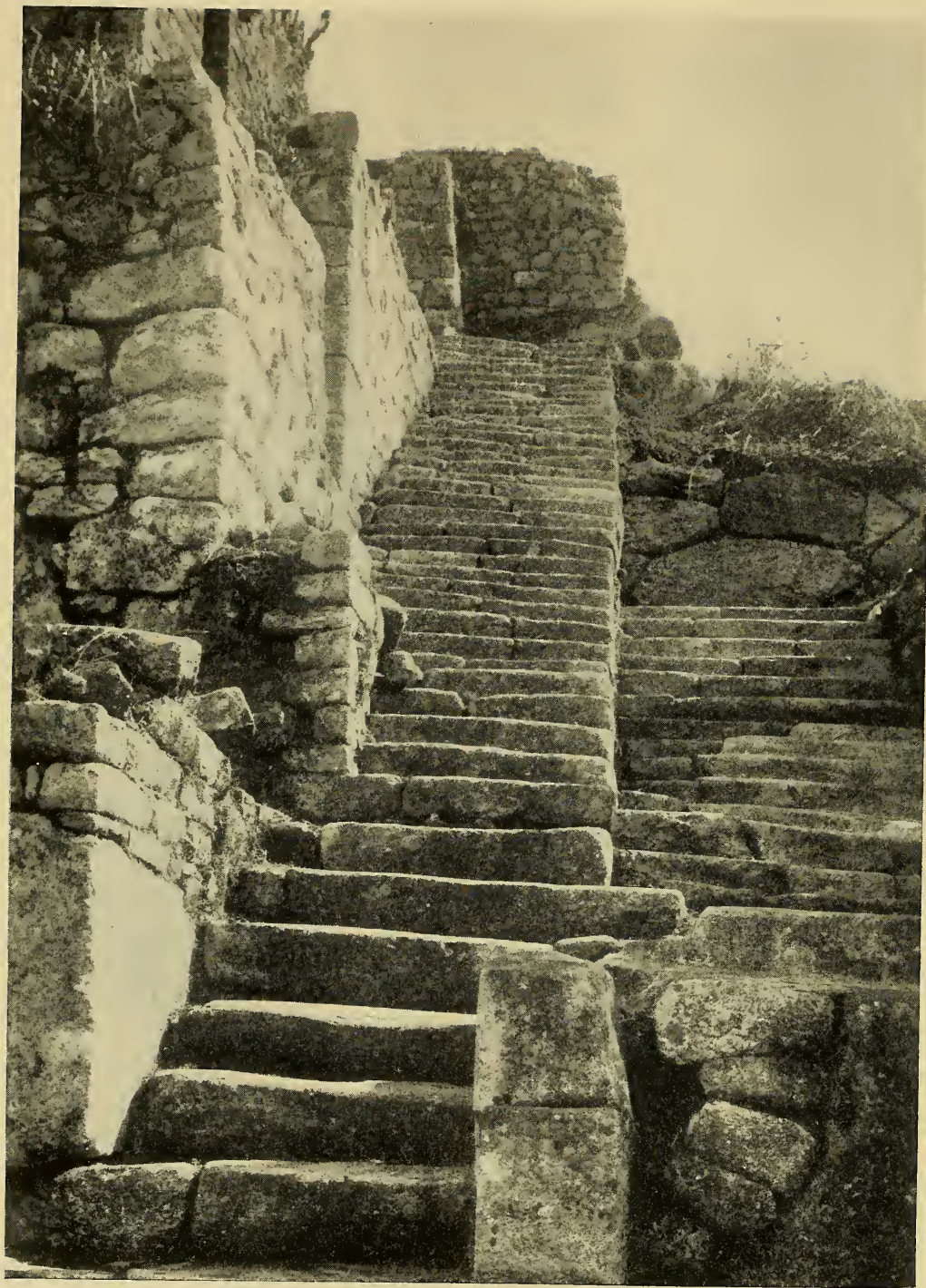
Garcilaso succeeds in presenting those broad truths, the patrimony of historians with the soul of poets, that may err in details but succeed in preserving the essential. His are the core of Peruvian sentiment; the very rhythm of Indian life; the atmosphere of a majestic pastoral that animates the pages but reaches a climax of devastating tragedy; the veil of ingenuousness drawn over the horror of catastrophes; the gentle next to the terrible; the humble flower by the side of the fearful precipice; the resigned and melancholy smile that dissolves in tears. And such a contagion of nostalgia emanated from the pages of the *Comentarios Reales* that at the end of the XVIIIth century the Council of the Indies, after Condorcanqui's insurrection, advisedly prohibited the reading of this book in the Viceroyalty and ordered all copies secretly collected because, as the royal order said, "the natives learn from it many inconvenient things, which arouse a consciousness of nationality."

Ventura García Calderón and José Gálvez have recently pointed out Garcilaso's keen feeling for nature. Who has equaled him, indeed, or been more effective in suggesting the sublime appearance of our mountains? "That inaccessible snowy range never penetrated by man or by beast or by bird," he called the cordillera. In his bold and extravagant style, in the

exultant rush of one word piling upon another, he may be said to sculpture the ramparts of the Andes; and above the flight of the condors, above the masses and feathery drifts of the clouds, he summons forth the unapproachable summits, a line of portentous silvery battlements rising like altars to the ideal between the sacred silence and the deep turquoise blue of the empyrean.

Against this imposing background are set in short and graceful chapters miniatures of country life. Now it is a certain kind of banana "similar to a palm in its trunk and in its very green and wide leaves"; now the maguey, with whose juice women smooth and dye their hair; now the groves of *molles*, trees of finely cut foliage and perpetual verdure, that he saw cut down during his childhood in the valley of Cuzco; now the hummingbirds of a golden blue "like the finest feathers on the throat of a peacock"; now the farm at Chinchaypuquiu "whose woods were thick with alders all along the brook, which can be followed up where it is colder and colder as far as the eternal snows and down where it is hotter and hotter to the hottest part of Peru, which is along the Apurímac River." This river runs "very swiftly, compressed between lofty mountains which from their snowy summits drop almost straight 13 or 15 leagues to the river." In the Yucay ravine Garcilaso paints for us the thick, lofty trees that the Indians venerated because the Incas sat in their shade to witness the ritual festivities; the massive walls of the ancient structures along the bank; and the hawks and little birds that flew lightly through the air.

It is a true mountain landscape that we see, with its gigantic peaks "which surmount the others like the towers of a house," and the steep pitches on the roads, "some of which are 5 or 6 leagues long and



INCAN RUINS OF MACHU-PICCHU

The imposing stone-work of the Incas, who fitted large or small blocks together without mortar, has endured for centuries.

hardly less steep than a wall," "and which are terrifying merely to look at"; "the paths that ascend like serpents winding from one side to the other," on whose eminences "crosses have been placed." All the chill of the high plateau and the terrible cold of night on the punas are concentrated in the passing remark that "the Indians are careful to put their jars and pitchers and any other clay vessels under shelter, for if they are careless and leave them outdoors they are found next day cracked with the intense cold." In those desolate and rugged regions the Indians move in a gentle flock; "very simple in everything, like sheep without a shepherd, hardly at all inventive, but very imitative, as experience proves." Sometimes the picture widens towards the ocean and gives a fresh aspect to the sea along our coast. The flocks of water birds pass "so many and so thick that one cannot see through them. In their flight some drop to the water to rest and others rise from it. The pelicans at certain hours assemble in clouds, swoop like falcons to catch a fish, and dive until it seems as though they must have drowned. When this suspicion has practically become a certainty we see them come up with a fish crosswise of the beak, and flying into the air they swallow it. It is pleasant to hear how they hit the water and to see other birds which in mid-flight again ascend and descend, distrustful of the result. They fall and rise like the hammer-strokes of a blacksmith."

The scene of the execution of Túpac Amaru, the fall from favor and death of Don Francisco de Toledo and the assas-

sination of Don Martín García de Loyola, Túpac Amaru's executioners, are the artistic and providential denouement of the classic tragedy written by Garcilaso in the two volumes of his *Comentarios*. The appearance of the god to the heir apparent, the sudden invasion of Cuzco by the Chancas and the victory of Yahuarpampa, interrupted purposely and divided into two parts, are related with insuperable mastery. They resemble Ariosto in their deliberate suspense. The interview between the ancient Inca warrior and the fleeing monarch as described by Garcilaso seems like a monumental bas-relief. When from such heroic matters he returns to quiet beauties, all the *yaravies* of Melgar are surpassed by the description of "that flute which calls from the hill with passion and tenderness." A distinctive rhythm permeates the phrases of his ingenuous speech and lends to his words the cadence of his emotions. Hear how he describes the resignation of his old age: "I pass a quiet and peaceful life like a disillusioned man who has bade farewell to this world and its changes, without claiming anything from it since there is no longer any reason, for most of life has passed and the Lord of the Universe will provide for what is left as he has done hitherto."

Side by side with his profound and restrained emotion his gentle humor appears. He relates many trifling anecdotes, witty sayings, and details of customs with a charm and grace that forecast the *Tradiciones* of Palma, whose forerunner Garcilaso undoubtedly was. He was the complete chronicler of the first generation of creole life.

The Third Pan American Highway Congress

STEPHEN JAMES

Director, Pan American Highway Confederation

NINE YEARS' progress in highway development in the Americas was reflected in the Third Pan American Highway Congress held at Santiago, Chile, January 11-19, 1939.

The second Pan American Highway Congress took place at Rio de Janeiro in August, 1929. Between those dates an amazing transformation in the acceptance and use of highway transportation has occurred in each of the countries, members of the Pan American Union.

The conclusions of the second Congress proved the existence of an engineering fraternity seeking basic principles of highway construction. The conclusions of the Third Congress fixed those principles and pointed the way toward refinement of engineering practice and performance.

When the Second Pan American Highway Congress adjourned at Rio de Janeiro the all-weather road mileage in many countries was limited to meager distances from major cities, with few complete highways penetrating the rural areas. Now many countries have an extensive network of good roads, as in Chile, where they are a credit to the ability of the Chilean engineer. The road from Valparaíso to Santiago is evidence of the skill with which difficult terrain can be traversed with comfort and with safety. Penetration roads into the fertile area of South Chile are rapidly opening this region to the markets of Chile and the world. They have been built with the closest attention to sound principles of engineering and economics.

Courses in highway engineering and administration in several universities in South and Central America also have been vastly improved in the last ten years, and their number will be further increased. The delegates to the Third Congress, therefore, began their deliberations well founded in theory and with a background of practice that gave them confidence in discussion and offers a hopeful augury for the future.

Highway engineering is a highly technical subject. But there was no engineer attending the Third Pan American Highway Congress that did not bring to the discussions many new, helpful and original ideas which could be used by his conferees.

The first plenary session of the Congress was held on Wednesday, January 11, with Sr. Francisco Mardones, President of the Organizing Commission, in the chair. The Congress promptly installed Sr. Mardones as the President of the Congress and named the amiable and efficient Sr. Carlos Concha as Secretary. To the able and untiring efforts of these Chilean gentlemen must go much of the credit, not only for the able organization preceding the Congress, but for the success of the work of the delegates during the two weeks and more that they were guests of Chile. The hospitality of the Chileans, especially those living in Santiago, cannot be too highly praised. A new administration had just taken office and the efficient manner in which it assumed leadership under direction of President Aguirre Cerda,



Courtesy of J. Van Ness Philip

AT PRESIDENT AGUIRRE CERDA'S SUMMER RESIDENCE

The President of Chile received the delegates to the Third Pan American Highway Congress at Viña del Mar.

and the guidance of Sr. Arturo Bianchi Gundián, Minister of Promotion, were important factors in facilitating the work of the Congress.

The Congress met in the national capitol; the plenary sessions were held in the Salón de Honor. After the formalities of the first plenary session the Congress resolved itself into five committees, the several delegates having been assigned to membership on one or more of them.

Sr. Jorge Klinger, of Argentina, was chosen chairman of the Technical Section. The leadership of the Section on

Operation was accorded Sr. Agustín Maggi, of Uruguay. Sr. Antonio Espinoza de los Monteros, of Mexico, was given the chairmanship of the important deliberations of the Section on Finance. Sr. Orlando Freyre, Minister of Cuba to Chile, was named chairman of the Section on Pan American Conventions, and Sr. Pedro Uribe G., of Colombia, headed the Section on Education and Publicity.

To inform the delegates to the Congress of the continuing work that had preceded their meetings it was my privilege to

submit to the first plenary session a report on the activities of the Pan American Highway Confederation. This report included a brief account of the origin of the Congresses, including the visit of Pan American highway engineers to the United States in 1924, the growth of the idea of the Pan American Highway, and an estimate of the technical advances made since 1929.

With reference to the Pan American Highway the report said:

In our time no engineering project has captured so completely the imagination of the peoples of twenty-one nations as the conception of the Pan American Highway joining the countries of the American hemisphere.

First enunciated at Washington in June, 1924, by the members of the Pan American Highway Commission, the proposal was approved and given impetus by the Buenos Aires Congress in 1925. Already written in bronze on the walls of the Pan American Union are the names of those engineers representing nineteen countries who first formally voiced in the Constitution of the Confederation the idea of the Pan American Highway. Posterity doubtless will reserve an especial place for them in its esteem and affections.

This public acceptance has been encouraged continuously in many ways, by personal contact, motion pictures, public addresses, and through the press. In brief, all proper means have been employed to hasten the realization of an ideal around which the entire system of Pan American highways is being built. To those countries first to build important sections of the Highway many cultural and economic benefits are beginning to accrue.

Approximately 3,000 miles of the Highway have been built since the last Congress, and reconnoitering parties have surveyed or traversed a much greater distance.

As at present understood, the Highway proceeds from the Mexican-United States border to Lima, Santiago, La Paz, Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro, touching all intervening capitals, an estimated distance of 14,500 miles throughout the entire length. Of this distance, 3,000 miles are of all-weather highway and 8,900 miles more may be traversed in dry weather, while 2,600 miles represent trails inaccessible to automotive traffic.

In regard to technical advance the report stated:

Even outweighing the extraordinary mileage added to the Pan American Highway system during the past nine years, perhaps the greatest progress to be reported to the Third Pan American Highway Congress is the advance in technical knowledge based on the sound conclusions of the Buenos Aires and the Rio de Janeiro Congresses.

The conclusions of your Congresses were taken by the Confederation, studied, and expanded, and distributed in large numbers to delegates, schools of engineering, practicing engineers, touring clubs and kindred organizations. There is not today in all the countries members of the Pan American Union a practicing engineer or road administrator who has not been influenced consciously or otherwise by the principles first adopted by the Congresses and promulgated by the Confederation. These principles have found their way into textbooks, technical periodicals and the public prints, with a resulting beneficial effect upon the culture, economy and safety of the peoples of the American hemisphere. We have seen translated into reality the high ideals of your predecessors, expressed in cement, asphalt, gravel and soil.

Other subjects treated in the report included the reconnaissance survey of the route of the Pan American Highway through the countries of Central America, the organization of the Pan American Highway Finance Committee under the authority of the Buenos Aires 1936 Convention, the automotive convention providing uniform signs and signals, the model code for the operation of motor vehicles on the highway, the importance of highway research, and the publication of the monthly *Boletín* in which a technical dictionary or glossary of highway terms appears each month.

The report thanked the Governing Board of the Pan American Union and the Director General, Dr. L. S. Rowe, for help and counsel that made possible the activities of the Confederation.

Many important publications were submitted to the Congress by the several governments and the delegates. Among these were reports by the Pan American Highway Finance Committee, the *Manual on Uniform Traffic Control Devices*, the



Courtesy of J. Van Ness Philip

THE UNITED STATES DELEGATION TO THE THIRD PAN AMERICAN HIGHWAY CONGRESS

Código de Señales (Code of Highway Signs) from the Highway Department of Uruguay, and the important *Historia de la Ingeniería en Chile (History of Engineering in Chile)*, by Sr. Ernesto Greve. The Mexican Government reported on its phenomenal highway progress, and the Argentine delegation presented a volume by Sr. Carlos P. Anesi dealing with the past organization and promotion of the Pan American Highway.

Perhaps the most important single resolution to come before the Congress—at least the resolution that aroused the greatest interest—was the proposal of the Mexican delegate, Sr. Antonio Espinoza de los Monteros, suggesting a non-profit corporation to assist in financing the Pan American Highway. This matter was referred to the Road Congress by the Eighth International Conference of American States, which had met the month before at Lima, Peru.

The resolution as finally approved at the plenary session recognized the efforts of the Pan American Highway Finance Committee, created by a convention signed at the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace at Buenos Aires in 1936, and recommended to the governments their close cooperation with the committee in its efforts to provide funds for the completion of the Pan American Highway.

In brief, the recommendation of the Road Congress provided for a non-profit corporation with an international directorate composed of representatives from any countries participating, which would devote itself to financing the Pan American Highway, or any road part of the Pan American Highway System.

The functions of the proposed corporation would be to help those governments requiring financial assistance to obtain the



PERUVIAN HIGHWAY OVER THE ANDES

This road, the highest in the world, is part of the highway system that is being energetically extended by Peru.

necessary credits for the early completion of the highway, and to arrange for such credits to run for a long term and at low interest rates. This financial organization, variously spoken of as a corporation, authority, or bank, would be empowered to receive highway bonds of countries represented on its directorate, to issue bonds in its own right, to receive such other guarantees as the several countries might offer for the fulfillment of obligations, and in general to act as fiduciary agent for the countries seeking loans for highway construction purposes.

The Santiago resolution recommends that the corporation operate on the general lines to be indicated by the Finance Committee, and with the advice of the Technical Commission, also created by the Buenos Aires Convention.

This recommendation was addressed to the governments of the countries members of the Pan American Union, and in par-

ticular to the Pan American Highway Finance Committee, and its unanimous indorsement by the delegates of the third section and finally by the Congress at the plenary session may be interpreted as the best evidence of the desire of the delegates to the Congress to see an early completion of the Pan American Highway and an improved highway system in all of the countries of the American Hemisphere.

Among other important conclusions of the Congress was one to which all the delegates from the countries members of the Pan American Union assented, namely the desire of the Congress to see in universal use and application throughout the Americas the principle that traffic keep to the right. The adoption of a uniform system of signs and signals following closely, if not identical with, those in use in Mexico and Uruguay was also recommended by the delegates. A staunch effort was made to agree upon common definitions for high-

way types, so that drivers would not be confused by varying definitions.

Another highly significant conclusion of the Congress was the recommendation of the section on finance proposing to the American governments a reduction in duties on automobiles and accessories. The measure suggested the possibility of abolishing barriers "which make the importation of automotive vehicles and accessories difficult." The Congress recommended that other ways and means be found, among them an increase in the gasoline tax, to compensate the governments for this possible loss in revenue.

The closing plenary session of the Congress was held at the beautiful seaside resort of Viña del Mar. Many entertainments were planned for the delegates there, and President and Madame Aguirre Cerda received them at the summer home of the presidents of Chile.

By invitation of the Mexican government the Fourth Highway Congress will be held in Mexico City at a date agreeable to the Mexican Government and the Pan American Union, which also are to collaborate in the preparation of the agenda.

Following the Congress the Chilean Government invited all the delegates to a tour of southern Chile. A special train was placed at their disposal and, headed by the officers of the Congress, they left on the morning of January 22.

About sixty of the delegates to the Congress were marooned below the Chillán and Concepción area devastated by the earthquake that sent all Chile into mourning. These engineers had an opportunity to observe the promptness and efficiency with which Chile repaired her communications and to offer their aid and assistance to a stricken nation. The officials of the Congress who remained in Santiago to complete the work of the Congress also were called to the devastated region, as all

Chile concentrated upon relief for the residents in the earthquake zone.

Other delegates to the Congress arranged independent itineraries. My preference was a journey over the picturesque Central Highway in Peru, which by invitation I made with Sr. Carlos Suter and his daughter. Dr. Pedro Uribe G., of Colombia, accompanied us. This highway is a monument to the ingenuity and skill of the



A HIGHWAY IN CHILE

Many original technical details in Chilean highway construction were noted by foreign delegates for use at home.

Peruvian engineers. It penetrates an area that heretofore has been inaccessible to the average motorist. From Lima it ascends steadily through the most spectacular and awesome scenery to a height of 15,800 feet at the top of the snow-capped Andes. The fertile valleys, the mountain-side gardens, the glaciers of another age, and the colorful costumes of the people are among the many attractions of this trip. We left Lima at nine o'clock one morning and proceeded leisurely to Tarma, a thriving village on the eastern slopes of the Cordillera Central. The distance was approximately 117 miles and the driving time roughly six hours.

Roads similar to this Carretera Central in Peru appear on the drawing boards of the engineers of every South American country. The skill and the ability of the

engineers require only adequate funds to be translated into action and reality. Impetus to this action is provided by the Highway Congresses.

I do not mean to imply that highway engineering has reached its ultimate goal, but it has progressed so far that in my opinion no subject will more seriously claim the attention of future congresses than the safe and economical operation of motor vehicles over the highways of America.

To solve this problem, which already engages the best minds among highway administrators in America and in Europe, is a task that succeeding Highway Congresses must accept. Neither the public nor officials of government agencies can escape responsibility for the enforcement of sound principles of operation.

New Summer Courses on Latin America

I

University of Pennsylvania Summer School in Brazil

THROUGH arrangements in which the Government of Brazil is cooperating, opportunity for study in that country will be offered to American students as part of the Summer School program of the University of Pennsylvania this year.

According to Dr. John Dolman, director of the Summer School, the plans call for at least three courses in education to be given in Rio de Janeiro by faculty members from the University who will accompany the students to Brazil.

The courses, which will be conducted in English, will be open to undergraduate and graduate students seeking regular Uni-

versity credit, as well as to auditors, and will center chiefly upon problems in comparative education. They will be organized with some flexibility to meet the requirements of individuals, however, and are expected to be of interest not only to students but to teachers and administrators seeking first hand contacts with the Brazilian educational system and with cultural activities in Brazil.

During the voyage to South America beginning on June 17 and on the return voyage scheduled to start on August 9 there will be informal lectures and discussions aboard ship, and assistance will be given to students who wish to learn Portuguese, although a knowledge of that language will not be required.

As a result of the cooperation given by

the Brazilian Government the classes to be conducted throughout the six-week session in Rio de Janeiro will be held in buildings provided by the government.

Government cooperation likewise is making possible an arrangement whereby every American student will be quartered in the home of an English-speaking Brazilian whose particular cultural interests closely parallel those of his guest's and who will bring the latter into contact with other Brazilians sharing those interests.

Additional opportunities to establish acquaintanceships with Brazilians and to become familiar with their customs will be offered the visiting students through the admission of a limited number of Brazilians to the various courses.

English-speaking Brazilians who are authorities in various fields also will offer special series of lectures supplementing the regular curriculum, and a number of week-end trips will be taken to points of interest in the vicinity of Rio de Janeiro.

The Summer School educational program in Brazil will be in charge of Dr. Arthur J. Jones, professor of secondary education at the University of Pennsylvania. He will be assisted by Mrs. Leora J. Sheridan as special lecturer in education, and by additional lecturers if the registration warrants.

Dr. Jones has been a member of the faculty of the School of Education at Pennsylvania since 1915, and has served at various times as a visiting professor during Summer sessions, at the Universities of Chicago, Cornell, Wisconsin, Washington, and Hawaii.

He is a former president of the National Vocational Guidance Association, has made comparative studies of secondary school systems in this country and abroad, and is the author of books and articles in the field of education.

Mrs. Sheridan was a resident of Brazil

for a number of years and was closely associated with educational work in that country, serving the Brazilian Government from 1915 to 1928 as federal director of home-making schools.

Before taking graduate work at Claremont College, Columbia University and the University of Pennsylvania she was a student at the Peace Institute in Raleigh, N. C.

Enrollment for the courses in Brazil already has begun and will be open until the latest date upon which steamship reservations can be made.

II

Institute of Latin American Studies at the University of Michigan

ROBERT KING HALL

UNDER THE AUSPICES of the Committee on Latin American Studies and the University of Michigan, and with the cooperation of the American Council of Learned Societies, and the Rockefeller Foundation, plans have been made for an Institute of Latin American Studies to be held during the regular Summer Session of the University of Michigan from June 26th to August 18th, 1939.

With the intention of aiding in the "increase of knowledge and understanding of the civilization of Latin America, and with the hope that this understanding will contribute materially to a betterment of New World relations and aid the wider cause of world peace and progress", the Institute has established five immediate and specific aims:

1. To focus attention on a relatively under-developed field of study and instruction.
2. To offer a selected group of graduate students and teachers an opportunity to improve their

equipment by attendance at courses and seminars under a competent staff drawn from this country and from Latin America.

3. To permit the specialist to see the problem of Latin American study as a whole by giving him a chance to attend lectures and discussions, and to mingle informally with those attacking the same general problems from other directions than his own, in the belief that acquaintance with other techniques, approaches, and bibliographies will strengthen and broaden his own work.

4. To afford all participants the possibility of training in the Spanish and Portuguese languages and literatures, with special stress on the divergence and development of the distinctly American forms of both.

5. To introduce the group in attendance to a select list of outstanding scholars in the Latin American field, who will appear on the program of special lectures and round tables.

Under the leadership of Dr. Preston E. James, Professor of Geography at the University of Michigan, an administrative committee has been established which consists of Dr. Arthur S. Aiton, Professor of History, and Dr. Max S. Handman, Professor of Economics, at the University of Michigan, and Dr. Clarence H. Haring, Robert Woods Bliss Professor of Latin American History and Economics at Harvard University and Chairman of the Committee on Latin American Studies.

The Institute will offer two distinct types of instruction: The first, a series of round table discussions to be held under the leadership of world political and economic figures, will be announced later; the other, regular courses and seminars, will be organized as part of the Summer Session of the University of Michigan and will carry credit but may be elected on a non-credit basis if desired. Arrangements have been made for courses and seminars

to be offered by the following scholars in their respective fields:

Spanish: Julio del Toro, N. W. Eddy, E. A. Mercado, all of the University of Michigan.

Portuguese: William Berrien of the University of California.

History: Arthur S. Aiton of the University of Michigan, Gilberto Freyre, Brazilian social historian, and Clarence H. Haring of Harvard University.

Geography: Preston E. James of the University of Michigan.

Sociology: E. B. Reuter of the University of Iowa.

Economics: Chester Lloyd Jones of the University of Wisconsin.

Business Administration: Dudley M. Phelps of the University of Michigan.

Education: C. O. Davis of the University of Michigan, and Robert King Hall of Cranbrook School.

Political Science: To be announced.

Law: To be announced.

Hygiene and Public Health: To be announced.

Members of the Institute will be required to present the usual credentials for admittance and will be accepted on the same basis as other University students, for whom there is a fee of \$35. Upon application to the Dean of the Horace H. Rackham School of Graduate Studies of the University of Michigan, holders of the degrees of Doctor of Philosophy or of Doctor of Science will be granted the privileges of the Institute and the opportunity to carry on research without fee. A limited number of grants-in-aid will be available through the generosity of the American Council of Learned Societies, the Rockefeller Foundation, and the University of Michigan. All inquiries regarding the Institute should be addressed to the Director, Preston E. James, 13 Angell Hall, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

United States Trade With Latin America in 1938

JULIAN G. ZIER

Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union

ACCORDING to figures recently issued by the Division of Foreign Trade Statistics, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce, the total trade of the United States with the 20 Latin American Republics for the calendar year ended December 1938, amounted to \$948,515,000, which was \$302,299,000, or 24.2 percent, less than the total (\$1,250,814,000) in 1937. United States imports from the Latin American Republics reached a value of \$453,645,000 in 1938, as compared with \$672,611,000 in 1937, a loss of \$218,966,000, or 32.6 percent. United States sales to the Latin American nations totaled \$494,870,000 in 1938, showing a decline of \$83,333,000, or 14.4 percent, in comparison with \$578,203,000, the figure for 1937.

The rapid expansion of trade enjoyed by most of the nations of the world in 1937 did not continue in 1938. With the 21.4 percent decline in United States world trade in 1938, as compared with that in the previous year, there was a slightly greater proportionate decrease (24.2 percent) in the share of its trade with the 20 Latin American Republics. Perhaps the best explanation of this decline is the fact that there was not sufficient dollar exchange during the year with which the Latin American countries could buy in United States markets; for this the drop in United States purchases of Latin American raw

materials was largely responsible. In 1929, 20 percent of combined United States imports and exports was credited to these republics; in 1938 it was 18.8 percent, and in 1937, 19.4 percent. Consequently, the present status of United States trade with the Latin American Republics is not drastically unfavorable.

In 1938 the United States total trade with the world amounted to \$5,054,623,000, of which \$1,960,528,000 represented imports and \$3,094,095,000 represented exports. Out of these totals, according to figures given above, the Latin American Republics were responsible for 18.8 percent of the aggregate trade, 23.1 percent of total imports, and 16 percent of total exports. In 1937 United States world trade totaled \$6,432,835,000, of which \$3,083,668,000 represented imports and \$3,349,167,000 represented exports. The share of this trade with the Latin American nations was: Total trade, 19.4 percent; imports, 21.8 percent; and exports, 17.3 percent.

United States purchases from the Latin Republics in North America decreased by 23.4 percent in 1938; those from the South American Republics declined by 38.1 percent. United States sales to the Latin Republics in North America in 1938 decreased by 24.7 percent; those to the South American Republics diminished by 5.8 percent.

With regard to the trade of the individual

countries, circumstances obviously differ. The tables published herewith show decreases in United States imports from each of the Latin American Republics (except Honduras, Haiti, and Paraguay), ranging from 0.8 percent in the case of Guatemala

to 70.7 percent in the case of Argentina. Increases for Honduras, Haiti, and Paraguay were 0.3 percent, 2.4 percent, and 23.7 percent, respectively. With regard to United States sales to the Latin American Republics, there were five increases.

United States Imports from Latin America

(Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted)

Country of origin	1937	1938	Percent change in 1938
Mexico	60, 120	49, 007	-18. 4
Guatemala	9, 611	9, 529	-0. 8
El Salvador	8, 563	5, 672	-33. 8
Honduras	5, 674	5, 692	+0. 3
Nicaragua	3, 103	2, 478	-20. 1
Costa Rica	4, 434	4, 102	-7. 5
Panama (including Canal Zone)	4, 623	3, 921	-15. 2
Cuba	148, 045	105, 840	-28. 5
Dominican Republic	7, 377	5, 745	-22. 1
Haiti	2, 896	2, 967	+2. 4
North American Republics	254, 446	194, 953	-23. 4
Argentina	138, 940	40, 707	-70. 7
Bolivia ¹	1, 363	865	-36. 5
Brazil	120, 638	97, 937	-18. 8
Chile	46, 668	28, 234	-39. 5
Colombia	52, 345	49, 432	-5. 6
Ecuador	4, 012	2, 584	-35. 6
Paraguay ¹	1, 095	1, 355	+23. 7
Peru	16, 525	12, 813	-22. 5
Uruguay	13, 809	4, 730	-65. 7
Venezuela	22, 770	20, 035	-12. 0
South American Republics	418, 165	258, 692	-38. 1
Total Latin America	672, 611	453, 645	-32. 6

¹ United States statistics credit commodities in considerable quantities imported from and exported to Bolivia and Paraguay via ports situated in neighboring countries, not to the republics of Bolivia and Paraguay, but to the countries in which the ports of entry or departure are located.

Sales to Honduras gained by 13 percent; to Costa Rica, by 21.7 percent; to Chile, by 2.5 percent; to Colombia, by 4.3 percent; and to Venezuela, by 12.5 percent. The decreases ranged from 2.3 percent for Panama to 61.7 percent for Uruguay.

The following tables show the distribution of the trade of the United States with the Latin American nations, by values and percent of increase or decrease, for the calendar year 1938, with comparisons for 1937.

United States Exports to Latin America

(Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted)

Country of destination	1937	1938	Percent change in 1938
Mexico	109, 450	62, 043	-43. 3
Guatemala	7, 612	6, 863	-9. 8
El Salvador	3, 628	3, 527	-2. 8
Honduras	5, 568	6, 292	+13. 0
Nicaragua	3, 353	2, 833	-15. 5
Costa Rica	4, 477	5, 449	+21. 7
Panama (including Canal Zone)	24, 981	24, 403	-2. 3
Cuba	92, 263	76, 329	-17. 3
Dominican Republic	6, 469	5, 696	-11. 9
Haiti	4, 084	3, 642	-10. 8
North American Republics	261, 885	197, 077	-24. 7
Argentina	94, 183	86, 772	-7. 9
Bolivia ¹	5, 863	5, 395	-8. 0
Brazil	68, 631	61, 955	-9. 7
Chile	23, 997	24, 603	+2. 5
Colombia	39, 200	40, 884	+4. 3
Ecuador	5, 052	3, 311	-34. 4
Paraguay ¹	743	644	-13. 3
Peru	19, 001	16, 893	-11. 1
Uruguay	13, 203	5, 058	-61. 7
Venezuela	46, 445	52, 278	+12. 5
South American Republics	316, 318	297, 793	-5. 8
Total Latin America	578, 203	494, 870	-14. 4

¹ United States statistics credit commodities in considerable quantities imported from and exported to Bolivia and Paraguay via ports situated in neighboring countries, not to the republics of Bolivia and Paraguay, but to the countries in which the ports of entry or departure are located.

Latin American Foreign Trade

In 1936, 1937, and Part of 1938

JULIAN G. ZIER

Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union

The following is a statistical account of the value of the purchases and sales of the 20 Latin American Republics during the years 1936 and 1937, the latest years for which it is possible to obtain complete totals of such foreign trade and to convert all of the monetary units of the Republics into a common denomination for comparison.

This conversion has been accomplished for these years by a somewhat arbitrary system necessitated by the fact that the data upon which dollar values are based were originally expressed in twenty different monetary units, many of which have more than one rate of exchange in foreign markets. The situation is further complicated by the currencies used in barter agreements. In consideration of these facts the accompanying tables are published with such reservations as the process of compilation necessitated.

Figures for 1938 for the foreign trade of the Latin American countries (in so far as data are available) will be found on pages 229-31. The trade for 1936 and 1937 is shown as distributed among the six leading commercial countries of the world, i. e., the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy, Japan and the United States. The same distribution, by percentage participation in total imports and total exports for 1938, is also given.

The total foreign trade of the 20 Latin American Republics for 1937, compiled

from Latin American official sources and converted into United States current dollars (see Table No. I), reached the approximate value of \$4,026,883,000, an increase of \$870,577,000, or 27.6 percent over the total for 1936. Imports for 1937 totaled \$1,630,829,000, increasing over the previous year by \$382,599,000, or 30.7 percent; exports, amounting to \$2,396,054,000, gained by \$487,978,000, or 25.6 percent, as compared with 1936.

The commercial movement of the 20 Latin American Republics for the latest six-year period for which totals are available (1932 to 1937, inclusive), together with figures for the earliest four years for which a comparative compilation was made (1910 to 1913, inclusive,) is shown in the following table:

All Latin America—1910 to 1913 and 1932 to 1937

(Values in thousands of United States current dollars, i. e., 000 omitted)

Year	Imports	Exports	Total Trade
1910.....	1, 058, 660	1, 286, 201	2, 344, 861
1911.....	1, 159, 491	1, 283, 233	2, 442, 724
1912.....	1, 242, 513	1, 573, 533	2, 816, 046
1913.....	1, 321, 861	1, 552, 751	2, 874, 612
1932.....	610, 448	1, 030, 393	1, 640, 841
1933.....	794, 121	1, 178, 337	1, 972, 458
1934.....	1, 043, 673	1, 632, 368	2, 676, 041
1935.....	1, 117, 487	1, 722, 596	2, 840, 083
1936.....	1, 248, 230	1, 908, 076	3, 156, 306
1937.....	1, 630, 829	2, 396, 054	4, 026, 883

TABLE I.—LATIN AMERICAN FOREIGN TRADE IN 1937—A GENERAL SURVEY
(Values in thousands of United States current dollars, i. e., 000 omitted)

Country	Imports			Exports			Total foreign trade		
	1936	1937	Increase	1936	1937	Increase	1936	1937	Increase
Mexico.....	128,846	170,317	41,471	215,227	247,638	32,411	344,073	417,955	73,882
Guatemala.....	14,380	20,929	6,539	15,106	16,109	1,003	29,496	37,038	7,542
El Salvador.....	18,049	19,982	1,933	10,098	15,514	5,416	18,147	25,496	7,349
Honduras.....	8,723	10,387	1,664	9,215	9,641	426	17,938	20,028	2,090
Nicaragua.....	5,580	5,621	41	4,648	7,038	2,390	10,228	12,659	2,431
Costa Rica.....	8,397	11,879	3,482	8,309	11,512	3,203	16,706	23,391	6,685
Panama.....	18,990	21,828	2,838	17,394	18,669	1,275	26,384	30,497	4,113
Cuba.....	103,215	129,572	26,357	154,847	186,071	31,224	258,092	315,643	57,551
Dominican Republic.....	9,927	11,692	1,765	15,150	18,120	2,970	25,077	29,812	4,735
Haiti.....	7,984	9,215	1,231	9,448	8,971	577	17,032	18,186	1,154
North American Republics.....	313,701	401,422	87,721	449,442	529,283	79,841	763,143	930,705	167,562
Argentina.....	371,641	482,259	110,618	549,365	757,776	208,411	921,006	1,240,035	319,029
Bolivia.....	20,214	21,621	1,377	36,503	45,479	8,976	56,747	67,100	10,353
Brazil.....	246,729	330,565	83,836	320,044	347,584	27,540	566,773	678,149	111,376
Chile.....	71,462	88,389	16,927	115,884	195,298	79,414	187,346	283,087	95,741
Colombia.....	68,625	95,973	27,348	90,118	104,176	14,058	158,743	200,149	41,406
Ecuador.....	10,857	11,980	1,123	13,493	14,928	1,435	24,350	26,908	2,558
Paraguay.....	6,539	8,500	1,961	6,285	8,270	1,985	12,824	16,770	3,946
Peru.....	46,625	59,272	12,647	83,617	92,091	8,474	133,542	151,363	17,821
Uruguay.....	34,530	44,818	10,289	47,290	55,068	7,778	81,820	99,887	18,067
Venezuela.....	53,977	86,029	32,052	196,035	246,101	50,066	250,012	332,130	82,118
South American Republics.....	934,529	1,229,407	294,878	1,458,634	1,806,771	348,137	2,393,163	3,096,178	703,015
Total of the 20 Republics.....	1,248,230	1,630,823	382,593	1,908,076	2,306,054	397,978	3,156,306	4,026,883	870,577

¹ Exclusive of parcel post.

² Fiscal year ended July 31.

³ Including reexports.

⁴ Fiscal year ended September 30.

⁵ Decrease.

TABLE II.—DISTRIBUTION OF TRADE—IMPORTS
Latin American Imports from Leading Commercial Countries
 (Values in thousands of United States current dollars, i. e., 000 omitted)

Country	Total from all countries		United Kingdom		France		Germany		Italy		Japan		United States	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Mexico.....	128,846	170,317	6,582	7,925	4,655	5,622	19,833	27,368	561	1,669	2,033	2,988	76,189	105,890
Guatemala.....	14,390	20,929	1,314	1,670	265	227	4,407	6,786	211	316	82	86	6,066	9,485
El Salvador.....	8,049	9,982	1,896	1,134	149	233	2,707	3,709	79	205	6	14	3,102	4,034
Honduras ¹	8,723	10,387	311	342	84	94	1,335	1,490	23	21	667	1,516	5,796	6,029
Nicaragua.....	5,580	5,621	697	477	186	127	1,337	857	42	39	143	243	2,580	3,045
Costa Rica.....	8,397	11,879	611	859	103	159	1,952	2,748	158	301	635	977	3,063	5,048
Panama.....	18,990	21,828	1,165	1,275	739	673	1,824	1,169	189	144	2,987	3,089	9,778	11,357
Cuba.....	103,215	129,572	5,096	6,321	2,695	2,807	4,798	5,845	187	457	1,273	1,479	66,494	88,847
Dominican Republic.....	9,927	11,692	5,634	6,777	183	307	707	905	46	121	1,479	1,479	4,765	6,115
Haiti ²	7,584	9,215	958	1,641	399	224	495	650	61	97	460	644	4,283	4,698
North American Republics.....	313,701	401,422	18,264	22,421	9,368	10,568	37,688	50,427	1,457	3,370	8,938	11,773	182,746	244,518
Percent of imports.....	100.0	100.0	5.8	5.6	3.0	2.6	12.0	12.6	0.5	0.8	2.9	2.9	58.3	60.9
Argentina.....	371,641	482,259	87,427	99,956	16,327	20,213	34,405	51,545	15,455	22,448	14,789	17,430	53,536	77,558
Bolivia.....	20,244	21,621	2,197	1,706	271	321	2,564	2,879	211	321	1,261	1,047	5,912	5,997
Brazil.....	246,720	330,565	27,740	38,028	7,280	7,797	57,950	70,016	4,376	4,957	2,865	5,326	54,663	76,413
Chile.....	71,462	88,389	9,379	9,638	1,388	1,660	20,540	23,014	1,074	1,058	2,048	2,287	18,131	25,711
Colombia.....	68,625	95,973	12,920	18,062	2,155	3,011	25,267	12,870	276	750	75	202	28,333	46,391
Ecuador.....	10,857	11,980	1,206	1,269	245	374	2,310	2,885	230	342	947	388	3,129	4,740
Paraguay.....	6,599	8,500	926	739	90	99	905	1,194	135	214	907	1,167	372	646
Peru.....	40,925	50,272	6,700	6,086	996	1,217	9,707	11,660	853	1,071	1,961	2,042	15,911	21,016
Uruguay.....	31,530	44,813	6,220	7,536	741	965	3,257	4,951	1,165	1,701	1,770	2,091	4,619	6,075
Venezuela.....	53,977	86,629	5,455	8,023	2,822	2,406	8,125	11,701	821	1,778	2,015	2,708	25,907	45,452
South American Republics.....	934,529	1,229,407	159,723	192,915	32,295	38,033	155,030	201,715	24,626	35,160	28,638	34,688	210,213	309,999
Percent of imports.....	100.0	100.0	17.1	15.7	3.5	3.1	16.6	16.4	2.6	2.9	3.1	2.8	22.5	25.2
Total of the 20 Republics.....	1,248,230	1,630,829	177,987	215,336	41,663	48,601	192,718	252,142	26,083	38,530	37,596	46,461	392,959	554,517
Percent of imports.....	100.0	100.0	14.3	13.2	3.3	3.0	15.4	15.5	2.1	2.4	3.0	2.8	31.5	34.0

¹ Fiscal year ended July 31.² Fiscal year ended September 30.³ Estimated.

TABLE III.—DISTRIBUTION OF TRADE—EXPORTS
Latin American Exports to Leading Commercial Countries
 (Values in thousands of United States current dollars, i. e., 000 omitted)

Country	Total to all countries		United Kingdom		France		Germany		Italy		Japan		United States	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Mexico.....	215,227	247,638	18,837	27,357	4,481	5,858	22,827	23,278	492	1,008	5,131	2,892	130,778	139,239
Guatemala.....	15,106	16,109	345	109	225	215	2,793	2,803	167	185	25	32	8,956	10,334
El Salvador.....	10,098	15,514	92	172	230	382	1,440	1,731	56	412	(²)	3	5,800	9,413
Honduras ¹	9,215	9,641	525	158	121	176	192	130	2	3	(²)	4	7,519	8,563
Nicaragua.....	4,648	7,098	84	53	606	582	743	1,504	31	45	136	335	2,505	3,897
Costa Rica.....	8,309	11,512	2,164	2,306	218	299	1,355	2,241	214	228	5	72	3,681	5,188
Panama.....	7,394	8,669	35	48	17	11	39	105	(²)	(²)	(²)	6	3,589	3,819
Cuba.....	154,847	186,071	19,881	20,011	2,556	2,304	2,406	3,136	4	209	168	69	121,899	150,158
Dominican Republic.....	15,150	18,120	5,399	5,430	1,773	2,595	328	589	25	76	258	235	4,602	5,832
Haiti ¹	3,448	8,971	1,426	1,449	4,459	1,463	207	374	63	729	142	187	1,345	2,500
North American Republics.....	449,442	529,283	49,008	56,984	14,746	13,885	32,330	35,891	1,054	2,895	5,867	3,835	290,674	338,943
Percent of exports.....	100.0	100.0	10.9	10.8	3.3	2.6	7.2	6.8	0.2	0.5	1.3	0.7	64.7	64.0
Argentina.....	549,365	757,776	192,995	220,308	29,369	31,435	32,068	51,540	13,513	46,441	8,522	7,804	66,863	96,687
Bolivia.....	36,503	43,479	27,313	27,246	19	19	552	491	5	45	8	48	2,851	3,313
Brazil.....	320,044	347,584	38,227	31,298	23,681	22,320	42,209	59,505	10,456	7,098	13,719	16,405	124,328	126,335
Chile ¹	115,884	135,298	18,956	38,177	6,950	9,627	11,205	18,575	5,052	8,912	1,735	3,081	22,558	43,918
Colombia.....	90,118	104,176	1,345	388	3,575	4,284	12,966	10,702	545	1,540	77	143	54,373	66,795
Ecuador.....	13,493	14,928	449	401	1,400	1,869	1,910	3,274	245	574	241	570	6,202	4,952
Paraguay.....	6,285	8,270	6	886	135	100	146	1,448	1	541	---	---	63	646
Peru.....	83,617	92,091	18,881	20,965	8,593	6,712	10,135	12,580	619	601	3,501	980	16,136	20,422
Uruguay.....	47,290	55,068	12,223	13,322	2,924	2,555	5,282	7,283	1,945	2,982	3,275	5,384	7,327	7,787
Venezuela.....	196,035	246,101	7,271	13,276	3,900	3,997	3,994	5,977	652	990	65	102	34,351	33,625
South American Republics.....	1,458,634	1,866,771	317,666	366,267	80,586	82,918	120,457	171,972	33,033	70,284	31,143	34,537	335,052	404,480
Percent of exports.....	100.0	100.0	21.8	19.6	5.5	4.4	8.3	9.2	2.3	3.8	2.1	1.9	23.0	21.7
Total of the 20 Republics.....	1,908,076	2,396,054	366,674	423,251	95,332	96,803	152,787	207,266	34,087	73,179	37,010	38,372	625,726	743,423
Percent of exports.....	100.0	100.0	19.2	17.7	5.0	4.0	8.0	8.7	1.8	3.1	1.9	1.6	32.8	31.0

¹ Fiscal year ended July 31. ² Less than \$500. ³ Fiscal year ended September 30. ⁴ Estimated. ⁵ Country segregations do not include "to order" shipments of nitrate and iodine.

The percentage distribution of these totals among the six leading commercial countries for the calendar years indicated is as follows (the sums represented by percentages for the years 1936 and 1937 will be found in Tables II and III, on pages 230 and 231):

Imports

The percentage distribution of the total imports of the 20 Latin American Republics among the six leading commercial countries was:

Year	From the United States	From the United Kingdom	From Germany	From France	From Italy	From Japan
1910.....	23.5	26.0	15.6	8.4	4.9	0.1
1911.....	23.8	25.7	16.7	8.3	4.6	.1
1912.....	24.5	24.8	16.7	8.3	5.1	.1
1913.....	25.0	24.4	16.6	8.3	5.0	.1
1932.....	32.3	16.3	9.4	4.9	5.4	1.1
1933.....	29.2	18.1	11.5	4.9	1.8
1934.....	30.1	17.3	9.9	4.6	2.8
1935.....	31.7	14.7	13.0	3.7	2.6	3.7
1936.....	31.5	14.3	15.4	3.3	2.1	3.0
1937.....	34.0	13.2	15.5	3.0	2.4	2.8

Exports

The percentage distribution of the total exports of the 20 Latin American Repub-

lics among the six leading commercial countries was as follows for the years specified:

Year	To the United States	To the United Kingdom	To Germany	To France	To Italy	To Japan
1910.....	34.5	20.9	11.1	8.4	1.2	0.1
1911.....	34.3	21.0	12.9	9.2	1.7	.1
1912.....	34.4	19.8	11.9	7.9	1.8	.1
1913.....	30.8	21.2	12.4	8.0	2.0	.1
1932.....	32.1	19.4	7.2	6.7	3.1	.1
1933.....	29.4	22.1	6.9	6.23
1934.....	29.4	20.2	7.9	5.04
1935.....	32.8	18.6	8.0	4.7	2.2	.8
1936.....	32.8	19.2	8.0	5.0	1.8	1.9
1937.....	31.0	17.7	8.7	4.0	3.1	1.6

The following table shows the total import and export trade of the 20 Latin American Republics with the six leading

commercial nations, by values as well as percentage participation, for the years 1936 and 1937:

All Latin America

Country	Imports from—				Exports to—			
	Thousands of dollars		Percent of total		Thousands of dollars		Percent of total	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Total.....	1, 248, 230	1, 630, 829	100. 0	100. 0	1, 908, 076	2, 396, 054	100. 0	100. 0
United States.....	392, 959	554, 517	31. 5	34. 0	625, 726	743, 423	32. 8	31. 0
United Kingdom.....	177, 987	215, 336	14. 3	13. 2	366, 674	423, 251	19. 2	17. 7
France.....	41, 663	48, 601	3. 3	3. 0	95, 332	96, 803	5. 0	4. 0
Germany.....	192, 718	252, 142	15. 4	15. 5	152, 787	207, 266	8. 0	8. 7
Italy.....	26, 083	38, 530	2. 1	2. 4	34, 087	73, 179	1. 8	3. 1
Japan.....	37, 596	46, 461	3. 0	2. 8	37, 010	38, 372	1. 9	1. 6

The data in the general tables published herewith are divided into two sections, according to the geographical location of the countries. In the North American group are Mexico, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, and Haiti; in the South American, Argen-

tina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela. The commercial movement of the northern group, i. e., the ten Republics from Panama north, was as follows in 1936 and 1937, by values and percentage participation of the six leading commercial nations:

Latin Republics in North America

Country	Imports from—				Exports to—			
	Thousands of dollars		Percent of total		Thousands of dollars		Percent of total	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Total.....	313, 701	401, 422	100. 0	100. 0	449, 442	529, 283	100. 0	100. 0
United States.....	182, 746	244, 518	58. 3	60. 9	290, 674	338, 943	64. 7	64. 0
United Kingdom.....	18, 264	22, 421	5. 8	5. 6	49, 008	56, 984	10. 9	10. 8
France.....	9, 368	10, 568	3. 0	2. 6	14, 746	13, 885	3. 3	2. 6
Germany.....	37, 688	50, 427	12. 0	12. 6	32, 330	35, 891	7. 2	6. 8
Italy.....	1, 457	3, 370	0. 5	0. 8	1, 054	2, 895	0. 2	0. 5
Japan.....	8, 958	11, 773	2. 9	2. 9	5, 867	3, 835	1. 3	0. 7

For the southern group, i. e., the ten South American Republics, similar figures

on imports and exports for the same two years are as follows:

South American Republics

Country	Imports				Exports			
	Thousands of dollars		Percent of total		Thousands of dollars		Percent of total	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
Total.....	934, 529	1, 229, 407	100. 0	100. 0	1, 458, 634	1, 866, 771	100. 0	100. 0
United States.....	210, 213	309, 999	22. 5	25. 2	335, 052	404, 480	23. 0	21. 7
United Kingdom.....	159, 723	192, 915	17. 1	15. 7	317, 666	366, 267	21. 8	19. 6
France.....	32, 295	38, 033	3. 5	3. 1	80, 586	82, 918	5. 5	4. 4
Germany.....	155, 030	201, 715	16. 6	16. 4	120, 457	171, 375	8. 3	9. 2
Italy.....	24, 626	35, 160	2. 6	2. 9	33, 033	70, 284	2. 3	3. 8
Japan.....	28, 638	34, 688	3. 1	2. 8	31, 143	34, 537	2. 1	1. 9

It is not yet possible to present a detailed study of the commerce of all the Latin American countries for 1938. However, the following statement of the percentage participation of the six leading commercial countries in the total imports and total exports of these Republics is given for that part of the year for which data are available. Certain of these data were obtained through the cooperation of the Latin American Section of the Division of Regional Information, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce.

Percentage shares of the six leading commercial countries in the total purchases and sales of the 20 Latin American Republics

(Total values in thousands of United States current dollars, i. e., 000 omitted)

Country	1938	
	Imports	Exports
Argentina (cal. yr.)—total..	1389,920	384, 661
United Kingdom.....	18. 3	31. 8
France.....	4. 3	5. 3
Germany.....	10. 1	11. 5
Italy.....	5. 5	2. 5
Japan.....	3. 3	1. 1
United States.....	17. 6	8. 1

¹ Customs values; real values unavailable.

Percentage shares of the six leading commercial countries in the total purchases and sales of the 20 Latin American Republics—Continued

Country	1938	
	Imports	Exports
Bolivia ²		
Brazil (Jan. to Aug., incl.)— total.....	200, 800	200, 700
United Kingdom.....	10. 1	9. 4
France.....	(²)	(²)
Germany.....	24. 8	21. 1
Italy.....	(²)	(²)
Japan.....	(²)	(²)
United States.....	23. 9	32. 2
Chile (Jan. to Oct., incl.)— total.....	85, 000	172, 197
United Kingdom.....	10. 3	20. 5
France.....	(²)	(²)
Germany.....	25. 9	9. 2
Italy.....	2. 7	4. 3
Japan.....	2. 7	1. 6
United States.....	27. 8	23. 2
Colombia (Jan. to Sept., incl.)—total.....	68, 797	64, 968
United Kingdom.....	11. 9	0. 5
France.....	(²)	(²)
Germany.....	17. 5	13. 7
Italy.....	1. 2	1. 5
Japan.....	0. 2	0. 1
United States.....	48. 8	53. 6

² Unavailable.

Percentage shares of the six leading commercial countries in the total purchases and sales of the 20 Latin American Republics—Continued

Country	1938	
	Imports	Exports
Costa Rica (Jan. to June, incl.)—total.....	6, 100	7, 700
United Kingdom.....	(²)	(²)
France.....	(²)	(²)
Germany.....	20. 8	19. 0
Italy.....	(²)	(²)
Japan.....	(²)	(²)
United States.....	48. 1	39. 4
Cuba (cal. yr.)—total.....	106, 007	142, 768
United Kingdom.....	4. 2	13. 7
France.....	2. 6	1. 4
Germany.....	4. 5	1. 9
Italy.....	0. 6	(¹)
Japan.....	0. 5	0. 1
United States.....	70. 9	75. 9
Dominican Republic (Jan. to Sept., incl.)—total.....	8, 419	² 13, 918
United Kingdom.....	4. 7	21. 4
France.....	3. 1	7. 7
Germany.....	7. 7	2. 8
Italy.....	1. 7	0. 1
Japan.....	11. 7	0. 2
United States.....	52. 9	33. 2
Ecuador (cal. yr.)—total.....	11, 064	12, 614
United Kingdom.....	7. 7	4. 6
France.....	4. 4	8. 0
Germany.....	24. 1	17. 5
Italy.....	3. 2	1. 5
Japan.....	7. 4	2. 4
United States.....	34. 6	37. 5
Guatemala (cal. yr.)—total.....	20, 955	16, 336
United Kingdom.....	5. 9	0. 3
France.....	1. 5	0. 6
Germany.....	35. 1	14. 1
Italy.....	1. 3	0. 1
Japan.....	0. 2	0. 1
United States.....	44. 7	69. 5
Haiti (Fiscal yr. ended Sept.)—total.....	7, 600	6, 940
United Kingdom.....	15. 5	13. 6
France.....	(³)	(³)
Germany.....	6. 4	2. 1
Italy.....	0. 9	1. 0
Japan.....	5. 3	2. 2
United States.....	55. 1	42. 8

Percentage shares of the six leading commercial countries in the total purchases and sales of the 20 Latin American Republics—Continued

Country	1938	
	Imports	Exports
Honduras (Fiscal yr. ended June)—total.....	9, 468	7, 356
United Kingdom.....	3. 3	1. 9
France.....	(¹)	(¹)
Germany.....	11. 1	2. 8
Italy.....	(¹)	(¹)
Japan.....	9. 2
United States.....	62. 0	86. 4
Mexico (Jan. to June, incl.)—total.....	47, 314	² 60, 607
United Kingdom.....	5. 2	6. 8
France.....	(¹)	(¹)
Germany.....	19. 8	5. 5
Italy.....	1. 3	0. 2
Japan.....	2. 2	0. 3
United States.....	58. 1	69. 7
Nicaragua (Jan. to Sept., incl.) ³ —total.....	3, 816	4, 741
Panama (cal. yr.) ⁴ —total.....	17, 548	⁵ 3, 770
United Kingdom.....	(¹)	(¹)
France.....	(¹)	(¹)
Germany.....	(¹)	(¹)
Italy.....	(¹)	(¹)
Japan.....	9. 3	(¹)
United States.....	57. 8	88. 6
Paraguay ¹
Peru (cal. yr.)—total.....	59, 846	78, 683
United Kingdom.....	10. 1	20. 8
France.....	2. 7	6. 4
Germany.....	20. 3	10. 6
Italy.....	2. 5	0. 3
Japan.....	3. 3	0. 6
United States.....	34. 3	26. 8
El Salvador (Jan. to Aug., incl.)—total.....	5, 440	(¹)
United Kingdom.....	10. 7	(¹)
France.....	(¹)	(¹)
Germany.....	32. 8	(¹)
Italy.....	1. 0	(¹)
Japan.....	(¹)	(¹)
United States.....	37. 8	(¹)

¹ Unavailable.

² Jan. to April, incl.

³ Country segregation unavailable.

⁴ Preliminary figures.

⁵ Exclusive of reexports.

¹ Less than one-tenth of one percent.

² Jan. to Oct., incl.

³ Unavailable.

Percentage shares of the six leading commercial countries in the total purchases and sales of the 20 Latin American Republics—Continued

Country	1938	
	Imports	Exports
Uruguay (Jan. to Oct., incl.)—total	² 34, 806	41, 234
United Kingdom	17. 4	27. 1
France	(¹)	(¹)
Germany	10. 2	22. 1
Italy	3. 8	4. 1
Japan	5. 0	2. 0
United States	13. 4	3. 9

¹ Unavailable.
² Customs values; real values unavailable.

Percentage shares of the six leading commercial countries in the total purchases and sales of the 20 Latin American Republics—Continued

Country	1938	
	Imports	Exports
Venezuela (Jan. to June, incl.)—total	52, 839	135, 044
United Kingdom	7. 1	3. 8
France	(¹)	(¹)
Germany	11. 4	4. 1
Italy	(¹)	(¹)
Japan	(¹)	(¹)
United States	58. 6	13. 6





Pan American Union NOTES

GOVERNING BOARD

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union at its regular meeting on March 1, 1939, took steps to put into effect resolutions of the Eighth International Conference of American States, giving its unanimous approval to the following reports, submitted by the respective committees:

Inter-American Conference on Indian Life

It was recommended that the program and regulations for the First Inter-American Conference on Indian Life to be held at La Paz in August 1939, as drafted by the Organizing Committee appointed by the Government of Bolivia, be considered final. The Director General of the Pan American Union was requested to inform the Organ-

izing Committee of the resolution adopted at Lima to the effect that the Conference consider the desirability of establishing an Inter-American Institute of Indian Affairs.

Meetings of Treasury Representatives

It was recommended that the Director General request of the American Governments, through their respective representatives on the Governing Board, suggestions as to topics to be included in the program of the meeting of Treasury representatives, to be held in Guatemala in accordance with a resolution of the Eighth Conference. In view of the fact that there will necessarily be a delay in receiving such suggestions, the committee also recommended that the meeting be postponed from May

to November, and requested that this proposal be transmitted to the Government of Guatemala.

Inter-American Commission of Women

The report on this matter recommended that the American Governments be requested to send to the Pan American Union by May 31, 1939, at the latest, the names of their respective representatives on the Inter-American Commission of Women. The Governing Board will then elect the chairman of the Commission from among the representatives whose names have been received by that date, in accordance with a resolution of the Lima Conference.

Codification of International Law

The committee of the Governing Board entrusted with the duty of studying the resolution of the Lima Conference on this topic presented the following report:

In its resolution (No. XVII) on the "Methods for the Codification of International Law" the Eighth International Conference of American States made a number of modifications in the procedure for the codification of international law approved by the Seventh Conference and by the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace. Two of these changes require immediate action by the Governing Board; these are:

1. Each of the three permanent committees is to have six members that are not nationals of the country where the respective committee has its seat. Formerly the membership of these committees was confined to nationals of the country where the committees were located.

2. The Committee of Experts is increased from seven to nine members and the term of office is fixed at five years, in the place of the former indefinite period.

Election of the new members of the Committee of Experts

With respect to the election of the new members of the Committee of Experts, the said resolution provides that they shall be elected in the manner indicated in paragraph 3 of Resolution LXX of the Seventh Conference.

Pursuant to the provisions of the latter resolution and adapting the procedure to the requirements of the election of two rather than seven members, the Director General has communicated with the members of the Governing Board requesting the respective governments to present the lists of candidates contemplated in the aforesaid resolution of the Seventh Conference.

In view of the fact that the resolution of the Lima Conference provides that the Committee of Experts is to meet every two years, and also that various resolutions of the same Conference refer specific topics to the national and to the permanent committees for the preparation of preliminary drafts for the consideration of the Committee of Experts, it is recommended that the election of the two new members be expedited. With this in mind, it is suggested that the Governing Board recommend to the governments that they submit their lists of candidates at the earliest moment, and not later than May 1, 1939. Also, as paragraph 3 of Resolution LXX of the Seventh Conference provides that these lists are to be submitted to the governments so that they may cast their votes within a period of three months, or of four months if all the governments have not been heard from at the end of three months, it is recommended that the said lists be sent to the governments by the Pan American Union on May 4, 1939, and that the Governing Board count the votes cast by them at its regular meeting of November 1, 1939.

Election of the non-national members of the permanent committees

The resolution on codification (No. XVII) of the Lima Conference provides, with reference to the membership of the three permanent committees, that:

"4. Each of the permanent committees shall be composed of as many members as the government of the country in which it has its seat may consider necessary; nevertheless, six of its members shall be designated by the governments of the other American States, in order that all the American Republics shall be represented on the three committees.

"The designation of the eighteen members who are not nationals of the countries where the committees have their seats, shall be made in accordance with the procedure which the Pan American Union shall establish."

It is recommended that the Governing Board determine by lot, at the session of April 5, 1939, the countries that are to be represented on each

committee. For this purpose the names of all the countries, with the exception of the three in which the permanent committees are located, shall be placed in an urn and the names drawn by lot. The first six names so drawn shall be for the Permanent Committee of Rio de Janeiro; the next six for the Permanent Committee of Montevideo and the remaining six for the Permanent Committee of Havana. It is also recommended that the Director General be authorized to inform the respective governments of the results and to request them to communicate to the Pan American Union the name of the person whom each government designates to the committee on which it is to be represented as determined by the drawing of lots.

As there are eighteen countries not at present represented on the three permanent committees and as, in accordance with the terms of the resolution of the Lima Conference, it is necessary to name eighteen non-national members, that is, six for each committee, the foregoing procedure ensures that each country will have a representative on one of the committees.

Special topics referred to the entities of codification by the Eighth International Conference of American States

A number of the resolutions of the Eighth Conference request the various entities of codification to undertake special studies of proposals

presented to the Conference by the delegations, the Committee of Experts and the Permanent Committee of Rio de Janeiro. In some instances the Pan American Union is specifically requested to prepare the documentary material for transmission to the respective entity, while other resolutions merely make the reference in general terms without specifying the instrumentality of transmission.

Your Committee recommends that, in both cases, the Union, as the permanent secretariat of the work of codification in the Americas, undertake the necessary work of classification, reproduction and, where necessary, of translation of the material and that the Director General be authorized to transmit the same to the proper entity in order that the studies recommended by the Lima Conference may be initiated at an early moment. The resolutions referred to are the following:

Resolution XIV.—Association of American Nations;

Resolution XV.—Perfection and Coordination of Inter-American Peace Treaties;

Resolution XIX.—Pecuniary Claims;

Resolution XXIV.—Definition of the Aggressor and Sanctions;

Resolution XXX.—Nationality of Juristic Persons;

Resolution XXXI.—Recognition of Belligerency;

Resolution XXXII.—Report on Nationality.





PAN AMERICAN *Progress*

American Express Company extends services to South America

One of the United States major travel organizations, the American Express Company, has recently extended its travel and financial operations to fifteen leading cities in Brazil, Uruguay, Argentina and Chile. Through an affiliate company it has acquired a half interest in the Sociedade Anonima Viagens Internacionais which operates a large travel office in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, and through another it has joined with the Compañía de Transportes Expreso Villalonga in forming a new company, Villalonga-American Express, which will conduct a travel business in fourteen cities of Argentina, Chile and Uruguay.

Central American Regional Radio Conference

A Regional Radio Conference of Central America, Panama, and the Canal Zone was held in Guatemala City from November 24 to December 8, 1938. The purpose of the conference, called by the Government of Guatemala in accordance with article 7 of the General Radio Regulations adopted at Cairo earlier in the year, was to allocate broadcasting frequencies for the participant countries within the frequency band of 2300-2400 kilocycles. This range was selected because static caused by climatic conditions affects broadcasts in the standard band of 550-1600 kilocycles.

Each country was accorded one primary

frequency which might be used with sufficient power to reach all Central America and Panama, and one secondary channel for local use. The frequencies adopted were as follows:

	Frequency in kilocycles	
	Primary	Secondary
Canal Zone	2390	2370
Costa Rica	2330	2370
El Salvador	2300	2360
Guatemala	2320	2400
Honduras	2380	2340
Nicaragua	2350	2400
Panama	2310	2340

Brazil signs extradition treaties with Colombia and Peru

An extradition treaty between Brazil and Peru was signed in Lima on November 3, 1938. A similar treaty between Brazil and Colombia was signed in Rio de Janeiro on December 27, the first document to be signed by the Colombian Ambassador to Brazil, Sr. Domingo Esguerra, since his elevation from Minister to Ambassador.

Advisory committees on foreign trade in Mexico and Venezuela

The Governments of Mexico and Venezuela have recently established national committees under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to act in an advisory capacity on problems related to foreign trade.

The Venezuelan Advisory Committee on Foreign Trade is composed of representatives of the Ministries of Foreign Relations, Finance, Promotion, Agriculture, and Labor and Communications. It is charged with the "study of questions directly or indirectly related to foreign trade

for the satisfactory solution of which co-operation and coordinated action is necessary between the Ministries represented." Whenever it deems it necessary the Commission may ask Chambers of Commerce, associations of producers, etc. to send representatives to its meetings, but they will have no vote. Its reports, once approved by a majority vote, are to be submitted to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for consideration.

The Mexican National Committee on Foreign Trade is composed of representatives of the various departments of the Federal and State Governments, as well as representatives of national and private banking institutions, public service transportation companies and institutions representing organized groups of business men, farmers and industrialists. The Committee is empowered to 1) coordinate governmental action and services related to foreign trade; 2) coordinate the action of private interests, among themselves and with the Government, and study jointly such legal or other measures to be initiated, hearing and taking into account the views of the private entities affected; 3) further the negotiation of the international agreements and treaties necessary for the protection and promotion of foreign trade; 4) propose to the proper governmental organs measures tending to secure the prestige of Mexican products and trade abroad, especially with reference to specifications as to classification, quality, packing, trade marks, and commercial arbitration; 5) propose measures to protect Mexican products and foreign trade against unfair competition, fraud, etc.; 6) organize into groups, by business activity or by region, those interested in foreign trade, so that these groups may act collectively in the export and import trade and in related activities; 7) study and propose measures to maintain an exchange

position and a balance of international payments that will secure for Mexico a sound national economy; 8) collect and distribute at home and abroad information useful to the development and prestige of Mexican trade; and 9) suggest measures to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the end that the Mexican Consular Service may perform the best work possible in the development of Mexican export trade.

The Minister for Foreign Affairs is chairman *ex officio* of the committee and will pass upon all resolutions which it may adopt.—G. A. S.

Brazilian plan for public works and national defense

Two decrees issued by President Getulio Vargas last January 19 have established in Brazil a five-year Special Plan for Public Works and National Defense, the total cost of which is placed at 3,000,000 contos de reis or approximately \$150,000,000. Although drafted in general terms the decrees point out the necessity of "promoting the establishment of so-called basic industries, such as iron and steel, and the execution of public works, as well as providing national defense with the elements necessary for order in and the security of the country."

For expenses connected with the plan during 1939 a special credit of 600,000 contos (approximately \$30,000,000) has been opened, the proceeds of which will be distributed as follows:

<i>Government Department</i>	<i>Contos</i>
National Petroleum Council.....	15, 000
Ministry of War.....	50, 000
Ministry of Navy.....	30, 000
Ministry of Transportation and Public Works.....	105, 000
Ministry of Agriculture.....	30, 000
Ministry of Education and Health.....	30, 000
Ministry of Justice and Internal Affairs.....	15, 000
Ministry of Finance.....	325, 000
Total.....	600, 000

Funds for expenses during 1939 are to be obtained from the following sources:

	<i>Contos</i>
Tax on exchange operations.....	250, 000
Profits from banking operations in which the Treasury participates.....	50, 000
Exchange obtained by shipments of gold abroad.....	100, 000
Proceeds of issue of National Treasury obligations.....	200, 000
Total.....	600, 000

The National Treasury is authorized to issue obligations in the above mentioned amount. They will bear interest at the rate of 7 percent per annum, payable semi-annually, and be redeemable within a period of ten years after 1944. They are to be delivered to the Bank of Brazil, which will place them in the national market.

The Ministries may not expend for personnel expenses more than 10 percent of the annual amount allotted to them by the President, who each year is to submit, through the Minister of Finance, a detailed report of the expenditures of the previous year.—G. A. S.

Economic reconstruction in Honduras

The National Congress of Honduras has issued a decree authorizing President Tiburcio Carías to engage the services of a technical mission, which will visit the country as soon as possible and make a complete study of its economic condition in order to draft economic and financial legislation, propose a complete revision of the taxation system, and prepare a general plan for the agricultural and industrial development of the nation. The President has likewise been empowered to obtain the services of agricultural experts to train Hondurans in the growing of various crops.

As soon as he deems it advisable the President, according to the decree, shall enter into negotiations with Chambers of Agriculture or other responsible entities to

promote the immigration of farmers. In the meantime the various Government departments are to proceed immediately with the compilation of the statistical data necessary to expedite the work of the technical mission. Once the economic and financial legislation, the tax revision and the general plan for agricultural and industrial development have been approved, the National Congress is to authorize the President to contract a loan to be used exclusively for the improvement of the national economy. The decree, which appeared in *La Gaceta* for February 11, 1939, was sponsored by Dr. Julio Lozano, Secretary of Finance, Public Credit and Commerce.

Compulsory cultivation of food crops in Peru

The law on compulsory cultivation of food crops, which although on the statute books of Peru since 1919 heretofore has been only partially complied with, was recently strengthened and extended by an executive order. Amending an order issued on June 1, 1937, President Benavides has provided that all farmers within the provinces of Lima, Callao, Chancay, Cañete, Ica, Chincha and Pisco whose farms have a cultivated area in excess of 10 hectares (25 acres) must devote a certain percentage of their land to the cultivation of food products of prime necessity. Farmers who comply with government regulations providing for a rotation of food crops and obtain two crops in the year must devote 5 percent of their land to the cultivation of these crops. When only one crop is raised, the amount of land devoted to food crops must be equivalent to 10 percent of the cultivated area of the farm. Wherever possible, the area planted in food crops must be in one lot; if this is found to be impossible, the lots must adjoin one

another and be located in zones accessible to motor vehicles.

In order to give the Government a more effective control over the production, as well as the importation and exportation, of articles of prime necessity the Bureau of Agriculture, Cattle Raising and Colonization has been ordered to compile statistics on the production and consumption of these articles in the Provinces of Lima and Callao, the most populous and therefore the largest consuming centers in Peru. The statistics are eventually to cover the whole country.—G. A. S.

League of Municipalities in the Dominican Republic

Pursuant to a resolution of the First Pan American Congress of Municipalities, held at Havana, Cuba, in November 1938, President Peynado of the Dominican Republic promulgated a law establishing the Dominican Municipal League, to be composed of two delegates each from the Administrative Council of the District of Santo Domingo, all town councils, and regional organizations of a similar category. The delegates will meet upon convocation of the Minister of the Interior and the Police to decide upon the organization and functioning of the League.

The law, which appears in the *Gaceta Oficial* for January 3, 1939, includes among the duties of the League: to promote cooperation between municipalities; to serve as a center for the exchange of data, information, publications, and other useful material; to encourage cooperation between Dominican and foreign municipalities; to back the holding of congresses, competitions, expositions, etc., of municipal, national, or international interest; and to maintain permanent offices, and issue such publications as may further its purposes.

Ecuadorean and Venezuelan codes dealing with minors

Two South American republics, Ecuador and Venezuela, have issued new Juvenile Codes.¹ The supervision, education and protection of abandoned or delinquent children under 18 years of age is a function of the State, according to the Venezuelan code. As far as social protection is concerned, the Ecuadorean code extends the age limit to 21 years, fixing it at 18 for delinquent minors. Both codes provide that the executive shall create the establishments necessary to provide protection and education for minors. Detailed rules of procedure are provided for the trial of minors and special juvenile courts created.

Haiti creates Social Welfare Fund

The Republic of Haiti is making an attempt to solve the problem of street beggars by providing homes for the aged and the infirm and for abandoned minors. A Social Welfare Fund (Caisse d'Assistance Sociale) has been created to: 1) establish in the principal cities of the country homes for those who because of age or infirmity cannot provide themselves with food, clothing and shelter; 2) create special establishments to receive and educate abandoned or delinquent minors; 3) provide for the maintenance of these homes and special establishments; and 4) grant aid to similar organizations already established. Special taxes have already been created to provide funds for this work.

Argentine National Tuberculosis Commission

The *Boletín Oficial* of Argentina for October 15, 1938, contained a law creating the

¹ See "Registro Oficial", Quito, Ecuador, August 12, 1938; "Gaceta Oficial", Caracas, Venezuela, January 11, 1939.

National Tuberculosis Commission under the National Public Health Bureau. The Commission will be composed of seven members, who will be appointed by the President and serve without pay.

The duties of the Commission will be to establish and maintain hospitals, sanitaria, colonies, preventoria, dispensaries, etc., throughout the republic; to set up laboratories, tuberculosis institutes, and convalescent homes, prepare statistics, and hire specialists; to grant subsidies to welfare societies, antituberculosis leagues, private institutions and other organizations devoted to fighting the disease; and to use the farm and other products of convalescent colonies either for consumption there or for sale elsewhere.

The Commission will be financed by national insurance against tuberculosis, the plans for which it is to draft. In the meantime, it will be allotted a credit of 2,000,000 paper pesos, from the general revenues of the current budget.

Voluntary sterilization in Panama

The Government of Panama passed a law on November 16, 1938, permitting voluntary sterilization throughout the republic under the following conditions: The petitioner must present a written request from the Sterilization Board, the request to be accompanied by a certificate signed by two physicians licensed by the National Board of Health stating that he suffers from or might transmit a hereditary disease or a mental or physical disease or defect that might seriously affect his progeny; in special circumstances where social or economic conditions justify such action, the Board may authorize the sterilization of a normal person if he can prove that he has had at least five children. Upon written permission from the Board, the sterilization operation may be per-

formed by any licensed physician. Permission may also be granted to women who, in the opinion of licensed physicians, would be in serious danger from pregnancy.

The Sterilization Board will be composed of the following five members: The Director of Public Welfare; the Chairman of the National Board of Health; the physician in charge of the Matías Hernández Isolation Hospital; the Attorney General; and a member of the Chamber of Deputies.

Cuban Institute for Advanced Studies

By a decree appearing in the *Gaceta Oficial* of November 14, 1938, the Cuban Institute for Advanced Studies was created as an independent institution attached to the Department of Education, with headquarters in Habana. In addition to the general duties of conserving and transmitting the cultural heritage of the republic, the Institute will sponsor special lecture series, encourage research, and establish fellowships for study and research abroad.

The Institute will be governed by a board of fifteen members, ten of whom were named in the decree; these include leading Cuban intellectual and educational figures. Members of the board will serve without pay.

The decree provides for the establishment, at the outset, of four special lectureships: the José Antonio Saco chair of historical research; the Enrique José Varona chair of philosophy and literature; the Felipe Poey chair of scientific research; and the José Calixto Bernal chair of social sciences.

The National Archaeological Committee, the Seminar of Historical Research, and the National Folklore Committee are to function henceforth as sections of the Institute.

National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation

Pursuant to a resolution of the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, recommending that those countries which as yet had not done so appoint National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation, Colombia and Panama have added their names to the list of countries where such committees have been established.

The Committee appointed in Panama by President J. D. Arosemena is composed of some of the most distinguished personalities in the intellectual life of the country: Dr. Harmodio Arias, Dr. Narciso Garay, Dr. Samuel Lewis, Dr. Jephtha B. Duncan and Dr. Cristóbal Rodríguez.

Six members will constitute the Colombian Committee appointed by President Eduardo Santos: a representative of each of the two Ministries most directly concerned with the work of the Committee, Foreign Affairs and Education; another representing the National Bureau of Fine Arts, the National Library and the National Museum; one representing the official and private universities; a representative of the Academies of History, Letters, Jurisprudence and Medicine; and a member representing all other Colombian cultural institutions.

With these two additions there are now Committees on Intellectual Cooperation in the following American republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Mexico, Panama, Peru, the United States, and Uruguay. In several countries where Committees have as yet not been established there are divisions and special services with similar functions in the respective Ministries for Foreign Affairs.

The above mentioned resolution of the

Buenos Aires Peace Conference provided that Committees be created in order that they might "establish contact with other such national groups, and with the Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union at Washington, and the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation at Paris." The Eighth International Conference of American States recently held at Lima, Peru, adopted several resolutions which affect the work of the committees and two which entrust them with specific tasks: to aid the Pan American Union in compiling information on the scientific and technical institutions of each of the American Republics and to give all possible publicity in their respective countries to the treaties, conventions, resolutions and recommendations of the International Conferences of American States. Their scope, however, was broadened to a much greater extent by the resolutions adopted at the First Conference of American National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation held at Santiago, Chile, January 6-12, 1939.—G. A. S.

Brazilian National Commission of Primary Education

The National Commission of Primary Education, to be composed of seven members appointed by the President, was established by decree law in Brazil on November 18, 1938. The Commission, which will function under the Ministry of Education and Public Health will organize a nationwide campaign against illiteracy, define Federal and State Government action with regard to primary instruction in foreign-born centers, draw up curricula for city and rural schools, decide on the conditions under which religious instruction shall be given in the schools, indicate how compulsory primary instruction shall be interpreted, and study the questions of free

primary education and the training, pay, and discipline of primary school teachers throughout the country.

Anti-totalitarian instruction in Paraguay

By a decree issued on December 30, 1938, the Government of Paraguay has made compulsory the teaching of anti-totalitarian doctrines in the primary schools throughout the republic, both national and foreign. The preamble of the decree states that there has been an attempted infiltration of anti-democratic propaganda, of both the extreme left and the extreme right, in the public schools, which is contrary to the traditions and temper of the country.

Brazilian League for the Prevention of Blindness

The National League for the Prevention of Blindness, organized under the auspices of the Brazilian Society of Ophthalmology, held its first meeting in Rio de Janeiro on November 12, 1938. Dr. Nelson Moura Brasil do Amaral was elected president of the league, which will have its headquarters for the time being in the Instituto Benjamin Constant.

Branches of the league will be established in state capitals, and help carry out the three-year minimum program suggested by the board of directors. This program includes an intensive campaign against trachoma and ophthalmia in new born babies; the establishment of 10 sight-conservation classes; and greater study of the health problems involved in artificial lighting.

The Dominican Republic restricts number of foreign employees

A law issued by the Dominican Congress and approved by the President of the

Republic on December 21 last provides that at least 70 percent of the number of employees and laborers of any employer engaged in commercial, industrial or agricultural pursuits in the Dominican Republic must be Dominican citizens and that the latter shall receive at least 70 percent of the total payroll of the employer. If the number of employees or laborers is less than ten the law provides that the ratio between the total number of employees and the number of Dominican employees should be as follows: nine, six; eight or seven, five; six, four; five or four, three; three, two; two, one; one, one.

The law establishes certain exceptions. Executives; technicians, if the Government is willing to certify that there are no unemployed Dominicans qualified to do their work; foreigners married to Dominican women, if they have resided in the country for more than three years; and foreigners who have Dominican children, if they have lived in the country for more than five years, are not to be included in computing the above mentioned percentages. The law also allows the President to grant agricultural establishments permission to employ foreign unskilled laborers without regard to the said percentages. Infractions of the law are punishable with a fine of from \$50 to \$300 for the first offense and double the amount for subsequent violations.

New waterworks for Cartagena, Colombia

As part of the festivities celebrating the independence of Cartagena, Colombia, President Santos took part in the ceremonies incidental to the opening of the new water works system. The water is taken from the Canal del Dique at Gambote, about 22 miles from Cartagena, and is pumped to the Cerro de la Popa, where

the filtration plant and distribution tanks are situated.

Woman mayor of Chilean capital

The first woman to hold the position of mayor of Santiago, Chile, Señora Graciela Contreras de Schnake, took office last January. Señora de Schnake is the wife of the Secretary General of the Socialist Party of Chile.

Brazilian experiment station for toxic plants

An experiment station devoted to plants from which substances poisonous to insects can be derived was established in Brazil by a Presidential decree issued in October 1938. The station will be under the Plant Quarantine Service of the Ministry of Agriculture, and will specialize in plants providing poisons for insect pests especially damaging to agriculture. Selected seeds, cuttings, and young plants will be distributed to those growing such plants on a commercial scale.

The Tenth International Congress of Military Medicine and Pharmacy

The International Congress of Military Medicine and Pharmacy will hold its tenth biennial session in Washington, D. C., May 7 to 15, 1939, under the presidency of Major General Charles R. Reynolds, Surgeon General of the United States Army. Some thirty nations have accepted the invitation of the President of the United States to attend, among them being several other American Republics. Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico are preparing formal papers for presentation at the Congress. The Association of Military Surgeons of the United States will meet concurrently with it.

The Congress had its inception in 1920 in a plan proposed by Belgium for the study of the experiences of the World War from the standpoint of military medicine by medical officers from the armed forces of interested nations. This resulted in the first meeting of the Congress in July 1921 in Brussels. In addition to the above purpose, it accepted as its task the amelioration of the sufferings of the sick and wounded of armies in campaign and the maintenance of constant professional collaboration among men whose mission throughout the world, in time of peace as well as during war, consists in giving their services to the sick and wounded.

The Permanent Committee, composed of one member from each of the founder nations—Belgium, Brazil, England, France, Italy, Spain, Switzerland, United States—was organized at the same time and held its meeting during the Congress. Both have continued to meet without interruption up to the present time. Since the first Congress, meetings have been held in Rome, 1923; Paris, 1925; Warsaw, 1927; London, 1929; The Hague, 1931; Madrid, 1933; Brussels, 1935; and in Bucharest in 1937. At the close of this, the Ninth Congress, the organization accepted the invitation of the United States to hold its tenth meeting in Wash-

ington, D. C. Thus for the first time the Congress will meet in the Western World.

The meeting will be formally opened on May 9 by the Secretary of State, the Hon. Cordell Hull. It will continue through the entire week with the presentation of papers on the seven subjects pertaining to military medicine selected by the Permanent Committee of the Congress. Visits will be made to the Army Medical Center, Army Medical Library and Museum, the Medical Field Service School at Carlisle, Pa., the Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md., and the Marine Base at Quantico, Va. An entertaining social program will be available for the evenings in addition to a special program for the ladies accompanying the delegates to the Congress.

Membership in the Congress is open to medical officers of the armed forces—active, reserve and retired. There is no fee for registration. Inquiries for additional information should be addressed to the Secretary General, Colonel Harold W. Jones, Army Medical Library, Washington, D. C., U. S. A.

Of general interest also, will be a symposium on aviation medicine occurring as a part of the program of the Association of Military Surgeons, on Monday, May 8.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General*

PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima, Peru, in 1938. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant

Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, intellectual and agricultural cooperation, juridical matters, and travel, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 100,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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(The contents of previous issues of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union can be found in the "Readers' Guide" in your library.)

ILLUSTRATION AT THE LEFT: THE HALL OF HEROES, PAN
AMERICAN UNION





Courtesy of Adán Díaz F.

GENERAL ANASTASIO SOMOZA, PRESIDENT OF NICARAGUA

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIII, No. 5



MAY 1939

General Anastasio Somoza President of Nicaragua

ON MARCH 30, 1939, the city of Managua was thronged with the thousands who had flocked there to witness the inauguration of President Anastasio Somoza, whose term of office had been extended by the Constituent Assembly for eight years. Members of many special embassies and missions from foreign governments were present when he took the oath of office and delivered his inaugural address, in which he pledged a continuance of his foreign policy during his first term, that is, support of the program of peace, mutual respect, solidarity, and cooperation approved by the American republics.

General Somoza, the son of Anastasio Somoza and Julia García de Somoza, was born in the town of San Marcos, Department of Carazo, on February 1, 1896. He was educated in private schools in Managua, Granada, and León, completing his secondary education in the Instituto Nacional de Oriente. He went to the

United States to continue his studies, specializing in business administration, to which he devoted himself on his return to Nicaragua.

While still a young man, General Somoza became interested in civic affairs, and being deeply concerned about national conditions, took an active part in politics. Before his appointment in 1925 as Collector of Internal Revenue for the Department of León, he had married Srta. Salvadora Debayle, daughter of the eminent Nicaraguan physician, Dr. Luis Debayle.

His ability in military and other public affairs received recognition as a result of activities in the campaign that brought the Liberal Party to power. He held successively the positions of Governor of León, Secretary of the General Staff and Minister of War, Minister to Costa Rica, Assistant Secretary and later Minister of Foreign Affairs. When the National Guard was

organized by the American forces, he was appointed Assistant Chief in November 1932, and when those forces were withdrawn from Nicaraguan territory, he became head of that branch of the army. In the general elections held on December 8, 1936, he was elected President of the republic, and took the oath of office on January 1, 1937.

The new Constitution adopted by the Constituent Assembly on March 22, 1939 provided that the President should ordinarily hold office for eight years, from May 1, but that the incumbent for the first term after the adoption of the Constitution should take office on March 30, 1939.

When the Assembly met in December, President Somoza spoke at the opening session, outlining in general terms the conditions that made it imperative to draft a new Constitution "in harmony with the needs of a nation desiring peace, progress, justice, and liberty."

"Without going into details as to the nature and ends of the State from the point of view of political science," he said,

"I think that we should gradually draw away from the concept of the Person-State, in its classic sense, and from the objectives that tend only to maintain social peace through the realization of individual rights, in order to pursue higher and nobler objectives, such as the encouragement of national progress and well-being through the proper organization and functioning of public administration." In referring to social and economic concepts, he said that the new Constitution should give preference to all matters relating to production and distribution of wealth, for "although in our country grave problems of this sort have not yet arisen, I believe we should prevent them now, by adequate protection for labor and capital, based on principles of social justice." These ideas found expression in a chapter of the Constitution on social guarantees, which contains advanced provisions concerning property, freedom of worship, marriage, protection for mothers and children, public education, regulation of labor, and social security.



The First American Conference of National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation

WILLIAM SANDERS

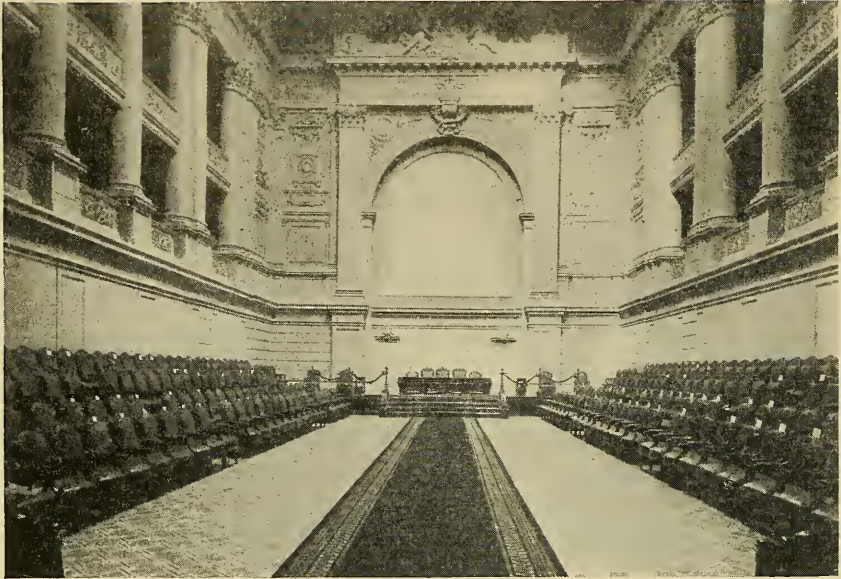
Chief, Juridical Division, Pan American Union; Delegate of the National Committee of the United States of America to the First American Conference of National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation

THAT confidence in the value and efficacy of the conference method has not waned in the Western Hemisphere, despite an opposite tendency in some parts of the world, would seem to require no demonstration in view of the accelerated rather than diminished frequency of conferences among the American States. A confirmation of this tendency was the First American Conference of National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation held in January at Santiago, Chile. This first of a new series of American conferences was convoked on the initiative of the Chilean National Committee in collaboration with the International Organization on Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations, through its secretariat, the International Institute of Paris on Intellectual Cooperation. The Institute cooperated with the Chilean Committee in the preparation of the program of the Conference and contributed 60,000 pesos towards its expenses. The Conference was opened officially in the Hall of Honor of the national Capitol, in the presence of the President of the Republic, the Hon. Pedro Aguirre Cerda, and held meetings from January 6 to 12. The sessions of the Conference were presided over by Dr. Juvenal Hernández, president of the National University of Chile and chairman of the

Chilean National Committee. The Secretary General was Sr. Francisco Walker Linares. The conclusions of the Conference are contained in fifty-two resolutions, motions and recommendations, which map out a comprehensive program of intellectual approximation for the American peoples.

With the exception of El Salvador and Honduras, all the States of the Americas, including Canada, were represented by delegates of official National Committees, by official delegates of governments of countries that had not yet organized National Committees, and, in the case of the United States of America, by delegates of the unofficial National Committee which cooperates on a volunteer basis with the International Institute on Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations. Each of these national delegations had one vote in the decisions of the Conference.

An interesting and profitable feature of the Conference, moreover, was the presence of non-voting representatives of national and international organizations of an official or private character, interested in intellectual cooperation. Among the organizations so represented were the Pan American Union, which sent Mrs. Concha Romero James, Chief of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation, the Organiza-



THE HALL OF HONOR IN THE CAPITOL, SANTIAGO

The sessions of the Conference were held here.

tion of Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations, the International Institute of Paris on Intellectual Cooperation, the International Labor Office, the Committee on Intellectual Cooperation of the Catholic Union of International Students, the Franco-American Committee, the International Institute of Ibero-American Literature and the Smithsonian Institution of the United States of America. Their representatives participated freely in the deliberations, and the fact that they had no part in the ultimate decisions in no wise lessened the value of their contribution to the achievements of the Conference.

In addition to the direct participation of the above-mentioned delegates and representatives, organizations and institutions not actually represented took part in the Conference through reports and recommendations submitted either by mail or through the delegates accredited to the Conference. For example, the Director of the National Archives of the

United States of America presented a paper on the *History and Organization of the National Archives*; the Director of the International Institute of Education of New York submitted a report on the work of that institution, and a study on *Intellectual Cooperation and Totalitarian Infiltration in the Americas* was presented by the Alliance of the Intellectuals of Chile.

The program of the Conference contained seven topics and fourteen sub-topics. At the first session, the topics were classified under four main headings, and a committee was appointed to study each; thus, Committees on Copyright, on the Work of the National Committees in the National Field, on the Work of the National Committees in the International Field, and on Informal Conversations or *Entretiens* were appointed. The membership of each committee was determined on the basis of the preferences indicated by the delegates or representatives.

The recommendations of the committees

were, with few exceptions, approved by the Conference. The fifty-two resolutions adopted suggest a program of action in the field of intellectual cooperation in which the governments, the National Committees, individuals, and private and public organizations may participate. Since this program contemplates the support and active collaboration of both official and private entities, it permits the free interaction of the various interests involved, thus combining flexibility with a unity and cohesion made possible by a central program devised in concert by these interests.

A number of the resolutions related to activities which the National Committees may undertake either within the respective countries or in cooperation with other Committees or similar entities in other countries. General standards of the work within the reach of the National Committees were enunciated; these concerned such matters as the organization of the Committees, their methods of operation, and their objectives and general policies. Other resolutions referred to the labors that they might undertake with reference to specific projects. Among these special topics were: 1) The promotion of small local workshops of indigenous art; 2) the encouragement of the writing of a textbook giving an impartial, non-nationalistic history of the Americas, and of an American school reader describing the life of the American countries; 3) the promotion of the study of economic, demographic, and ethnic problems, within the scope of the activities of the Permanent International Studies Conference; 4) the encouragement of annual exhibitions of the art of the Americas; 5) the compilation of a Dictionary of American Bibliography and of a Directory of American Educational Institutions; and 6) the promotion of correspondence between school children of different countries and simi-

larly between university undergraduates.

The Conference also provided for the establishment of an Inter-American Review, to be financed by the governments; for the creation in Santiago, Chile, of a Pan American School and University City and of a Pan American Bureau of Education; and for the organization of a Committee on Indian Life which is to cooperate with the Inter-American Congress on Indian Life that will meet at La Paz in August 1939. The Chilean National Committee was charged with taking the necessary steps to put these three recommendations into effect.

Other resolutions incorporated specific recommendations or suggestions addressed to the governments. It was recommended, for instance, that the governments give both material and moral support to the respective National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation; that the Governments that have not already done so establish Departments of Culture and Publicity; and that National Archives be established in the countries where they do not exist. It was also recommended that the barriers to the exchange of books, created by inequalities of money exchange or by customs duties and postal regulations, be lowered; that appropriate legislation be enacted to improve the economic status of the intellectual worker, assuring him a minimum compensation for his work and protecting him from the exploitation of his production; that the treaties on intellectual cooperation and the maintenance of peace be ratified as soon as possible; that the governments permit the entry into their territories of intellectuals persecuted for political, religious, or racial motives; that arrangements be made for exchange visits of American archaeologists to countries of other continents of major archaeological interest; and that the use of the radio and motion pic-

ture be intensified in the promotion of cultural interchange.

In the same manner, the Pan American Union was requested to look into the possibility of the compilation of a Dictionary of Latin American Biography, of a Dictionary of Hispano-Americanisms, and of a Dictionary of American Bibliography. It was also recommended that the International Institute of Paris continue its excellent work in connection with the Ibero-American Collection, a series of French translations of Ibero-American classics, and that it consider the possibility of making English translations from the originals; that the governments give the Institute their support; and that the National Committees actively cooperate with it, particularly in replying to inquiries addressed to them by the Institute.

With reference to the problem of copyright protection, the Conference reiterated with slight additions the resolutions on the subject adopted by the Lima Conference. These were that the American Governments send delegates to the Universal Diplomatic Conference on Copyright Protection, convoked by the Belgian Government for the latter part of this year, which is to consider the possibility of concluding a universal convention on the protection of intellectual property. The Santiago Conference, like the Lima Conference, also recommended that the Governments study the possibility of improving copyright relations in the Americas on the basis of the proposals for a revision of existing inter-American treaties contained in the additional protocol prepared by the National Committee of the United States on Intellectual Cooperation.

The foregoing outline of the conclusions of the Santiago Conference serves to indicate the variety of the subjects considered. The resolutions envisage cooperation and common or parallel action, national and

international, toward the same objective—greater mutual comprehension, both regional and universal. From correspondence between school children to cooperation between governments, the basis of a coordinated program of international intellectual approximation was presented.

A novel feature of the Santiago Conference was the informal talks, commonly known as *entretiens*, participated in by some of the outstanding intellectuals of the Americas who were present at the Conference as delegates. The success of these discussions at the Congress of the P. E. N. Clubs at Buenos Aires and of the *entretiens* organized by the Argentine National Committee on Intellectual Cooperation in 1936, led to the proposal that they be continued at Santiago. The subjects treated were of general interest and gravitated around Topic VII of the program of the Conference, namely, "The Mission of the Americas in the International Field as a Factor in the Organization of Peace." The talks aroused considerable interest not only among the delegates to the Conference but also in the intellectual and cultural centers of Chile.

The Santiago Conference was significant, aside from the opportunity it gave interested persons in private and official life to make valuable contacts, to discuss problems of mutual interest, and to work together in devising methods for their solution, because, as a special gathering predominately non-political and non-official in character, it brought to a focus the extremely varied public and private activity in the field of intellectual cooperation. This fact is stressed in the report on the results of the Conference presented by the American delegation to the National Committee of the United States of America, in the statement that:

The First American Conference of National Committees on International Intellectual Coop-

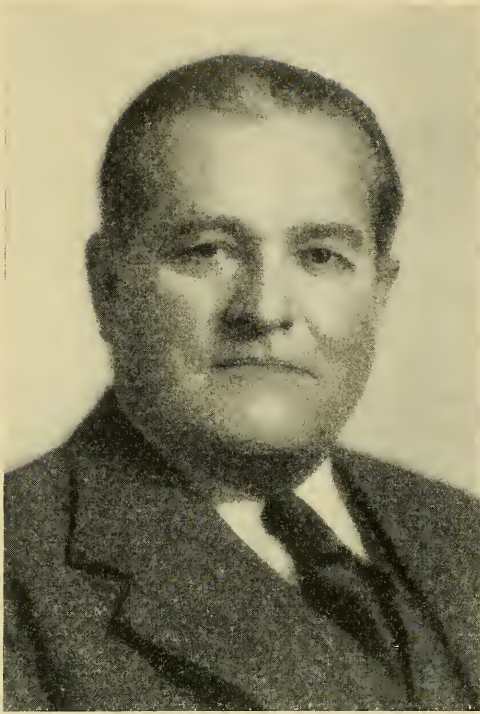
eration is important because of its definite attempt to formulate a practical program of action, thereby recognizing the need for special consideration of the problem of intellectual cooperation in the Americas. This Conference should constitute ultimately a clearing-house for the work of intellectual cooperation, and give the governments and interested individuals an opportunity to take stock, periodically, of the accomplishments of the program and to redefine it in accordance with the circumstances and needs of the American nations in relation to each other and to the rest of the world.

Resolution XLIX of the Santiago Conference provided that the Second American Conference of National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation shall be held at Habana at least six months before the Ninth International Conference of American States, which is to meet at Bogotá in 1943 or earlier. The Conference of the National Committees of the American States thus takes its place as one of the instrumentalities for the promotion of intellectual cooperation in the Western Hemisphere. As the national entities are in the main officially linked both with the Institute of Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations and with the Pan American Union, the Conference should be able to correlate the purely inter-American program of intellectual cooperation with the interests of the American Governments and peoples in the development of relations in that field with other continents.

The Pan American Union, especially through its Division of Intellectual Cooperation, is the permanent secretariat of the work of intellectual cooperation in the

Americas. The program of this work has been formulated principally by the general Pan American Conferences, and developed along particular lines by special conferences. Among gatherings of the latter type are the Pan American Scientific Conferences, the Conferences of the Institute of Geography and History, the Congresses of Journalists, and the Inter-American Congress of Rectors, Deans, and Educators.

The Lima Conference, which closed its sessions two weeks before the Santiago Conference opened, adopted the policy of confining the programs of the general Pan American Conferences to political problems and to the maintenance of peace, in conjunction with the frequent convocation of special conferences to deal with technical matters. It also approved a resolution providing that the Pan American Union and other Pan American organizations cooperate in technical matters, within the limits of their organic statutes, with international bodies in other parts of the world. In view of these resolutions, the advent of this new series of special conferences devoted to the advancement of intellectual cooperation is most timely. Moreover, the fact that most of the entities called upon to participate in these gatherings are affiliated both with the Pan American Union and with the Institute of Paris opens up the possibility of close collaboration between these two international organizations to realize the objectives fixed by the Conferences on Intellectual Cooperation.



Dr. Carlos Martins Pereira e Souza

The New Ambassador of Brazil to the United States

THE new Ambassador of Brazil in the United States, who will also represent his country on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, has had a brilliant career of more than thirty years in the diplomatic service.

Born in the then Province, now State, of Rio Grande do Sul in 1884, Carlos Martins Pereira e Souza was graduated in law from the University there and practiced his profession until 1905. The next year he entered the diplomatic service as second secretary, and before he was promoted to the rank of first secretary in 1918 had been called upon to act as Chargé d'Affaires at the imperial courts of Saint Petersburg and Vienna. After serving again in the same capacity at the Austro-Hungarian capital, he was transferred to London, also as Chargé. Having been promoted in 1926 to be Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, he spent the

next eight years in Ecuador and Denmark. In 1934 he was appointed Ambassador of Brazil in Japan, being transferred the following year to a similar post in Belgium. Early in 1939 the Government designated him Ambassador in Washington; he presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on March 8.

On this occasion he said in part:

The head of my Government charged me to continue vigilantly the cultivation of harmony in the ideals and aspirations that guide the two republics. Our past history and present days attest and the future will confirm that the United States of America and the United States of Brazil remain fraternally united in the sovereign recognition of justice and in respect for the precepts of international law, for the unremitting defense of peace.

In the present conditions of the world, when troubled days awaken distrust, anxieties, and fears, the need becomes more urgent for a close and constant understanding that aims at the maintenance of peace among all peoples and the safeguarding of an inestimable treasure accumulated

in your country and in mine through the hard work of our forebears.

In acknowledging the Ambassador's remarks the President said:

I need not assure you that it will be a source of gratification to the Government of the United States to maintain and to increase in every practicable way the close and friendly cooperation which has always characterized the relations between our two countries. Consistent with the recommendation to you by your illustrious President, Dr. Getulio Vargas, my personal friend, it is also a genuine satisfaction for me to reiterate the steadfast desire of the American Government to preserve the ideals and aspirations of our two Governments, through which the people of Brazil

and the United States seek to uphold the rule of international law, order, and peace.

The Ambassador, who is an authority on the foreign relations of Brazil, has written several books on international problems and represented his country at the Disarmament Conference held at Geneva in 1932. In the many different posts that he has held in both Europe and the Orient he has made an especial study of the culture of the country to which he has been accredited. He is well known as an art connoisseur and has collected many paintings and other works of art.

The Pan American Housing Congress

IN accordance with a resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States, which met at Montevideo in 1933, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union designated Buenos Aires as the seat of the First Pan American Housing Congress. The Government of Argentina has set October 2-7, 1939, as the time for the Congress, and has issued the program and invited all the American Republics to send delegates. Representatives of the governments of other countries, scientific institutions, other organizations directly or indirectly interested in the problem of low-cost housing, and professional groups, will also be welcome.

The Congress will be divided into the following ten sections: economic aspects; health aspects; social aspects; city planning and low-cost housing; financial aspects; architecture and construction; housing and popular education; legal and legislative questions; exhibition of materials and completed projects; and the present state

of the problem in the American countries.

The Organizing Committee, composed of Dr. Juan F. Cafferata, chairman; Sr. Juan Ochoa, vice chairman; and Dr. Carlos M. Coll, Sr. Benjamín F. Nazar Anchorena, Sr. Benito Carrasco, and Dr. Clodomiro Zavalía, has established its headquarters in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Santa Fé 953, Buenos Aires. All papers, studies, and other communications should reach the committee before August 30, 1939.

Dr. Cafferata has long been identified with the Argentine low-cost housing program. He has served several terms as deputy in the national Congress, where twenty-five years ago he introduced a low-cost housing bill, which became law on September 27, 1915. In accordance therewith, the National Low-Cost Housing Commission was appointed the following month.

The program of the Congress is as follows:

PROGRAM

Chapter I

THE FUNDAMENTAL PROBLEMS OF HOUSING

1. Economic aspects:
 - a. Need for good homes at low rentals.
 - b. Inability of the mass of wage-earners to become home owners.
 - c. Yearly income of workers' families.
 - d. Average size of families.
 - e. Allocation of living expenses, rent, etc.
2. Hygienic aspects:
 - a. Sanitation.
 - b. Gardens and meeting places.
 - c. Light, air, and ventilation.
 - d. Location with respect to work and recreation.
 - e. Low-cost housing and its relation to the general health of the community.
3. The social importance of low-cost housing; its relation to the safety, morals, and general welfare of the community.

Chapter II

THE PROBLEM OF SLUM CLEARANCE

4. Projects of the several countries and cities of America for slum clearance.

5. Types of buildings best adapted to districts populated by the poor.
6. Methods of financing slum clearance or rehabilitation.
 - a. Individual action.
 - b. Work of builders and contractors.
 - c. Government promotion or aid.

Chapter III

INDUSTRIAL HOUSING PROBLEMS

7. Problems of housing peculiar to industrial communities. The relation of the industrial employer to the problems of workers' housing.
8. Types of houses best adapted to workers in various industries and in different regions.
9. The financing of industrial housing projects:
 - a. Company funds.
 - b. Cooperative associations.
 - c. Builders and contractors.
 - d. Government aid.

Chapter IV

FINANCING HOUSING CONSTRUCTION

10. Private financing:
 - a. Principles to be observed in making loans.



Courtesy of José F. Linares

LOW-COST HOUSING IN GUATEMALA

Among the important social movements today in Latin America, the provision of low-cost housing holds an outstanding place.



LOW-COST HOUSING IN LIMA

The Peruvian Government erected the 105 houses in this and another subdivision.

- b.* Repayment of principal.
 - c.* Low-cost housing as an investment for banks and corporations.
 - d.* Direction and supervision of projects.
 - 11. Government relation to housing finance:
 - a.* Systems of assessment and taxation to promote and facilitate individual home ownership.
 - b.* Direct government aid in financing housing.
 - c.* Programs carried out by governments that have engaged in housing activities.
- Chapter V*
- THE ARCHITECTURE AND CONSTRUCTION OF LOW-COST HOUSES
- 12. Architectural plans for low-cost houses:
 - a.* Single-family detached houses.
 - b.* Multiple-family dwellings.
 - 13. Adaptation of the house to the environment of the owner:
 - a.* In industrialized communities.
 - b.* In agricultural regions.
 - c.* In mining centers.
 - 14. Types of houses best adapted to tropical regions:
 - a.* Projects already undertaken in tropical regions of the continent.
 - 15. Building materials for low-cost houses:
 - a.* Frame houses.
 - b.* Reinforced concrete houses.
 - c.* Brick houses.
 - d.* Modernized adobe houses.
 - 16. Knock-down houses:
 - a.* Advantages and disadvantages.
 - b.* Adaptability to the varying needs of the republics of America.
- Chapter VI*
- HOUSING PROGRESS THROUGH COMMUNITY EDUCATION
- 17. Stimulation of public interest in the problem of low-cost housing:
 - a.* Special factual articles.
 - b.* Exhibits and other visual material.
 - c.* Pamphlets.
 - d.* Visits to slum areas.
 - 18. Establishment of research and information facilities:
 - a.* Surveys.
 - b.* Correlation of studies and laboratory experiments.
 - 19. Crystallization of public opinion on the problem of low-cost housing. Organization of local and national conferences and special committees, and adoption of programs for constructive action.

Impressions of Argentina

ALEXANDER W. WEDDELL

Appointed American Ambassador to Spain; formerly American Ambassador to Argentina

MY FIRST IMPRESSIONS of Argentina, or at least of Buenos Aires, are today fresh and vivid: the awakening on the steamer on a spring morning to find our craft drawing nearer to the desired haven; the tawny waters of La Plata rippling about us; the first tall buildings raising their heads from the barranca; the puffing tugs bringing us to our landing place; the sense of order that marked the process of debarking; the warm welcome by federal and municipal authorities; the ride through well-paved streets to the wonderful building in which my Embassy is housed and whose construction was due to the vision and taste of an outstanding Argentine citizen whom I am honored to call friend.

At first hand Buenos Aires appeared to me to have much of the architectural beauty of Paris allied to something of the bustle and activity which I had thought would be left behind me in New York. And both these elements combined with a Latin suavity which gave grace to the outward manifestations of civic life. Almost my first little walk around the city was to the famous Florida, that busy avenue from which wheeled traffic at the moment was excluded, filled with a throng of well-dressed folks, men and women,—many, obviously, out to see and be seen; the rapid gait of others indicating a distinct purpose. In my later frequent walks in Florida I seemed to discern in the pace of the promenaders the tension of the capital, political or otherwise. This tempo

would be accelerated by exciting news from abroad, while a heated debate in the Chamber of Deputies seemed equally to find its repercussion in this active throng. A dull day, devoid of news, would be marked by a sluggish pace. Other features of the street life of the capital pleased or interested me,—for example, the white blouses of the school children, which I find admirable as tending to eradicate certain material distinctions; and the highly novel uniforms of the chimney-sweepers, which seemed to suggest that they might be clothing some diplomatic representative of an African country.

Family life and love of country

Side by side with these outward manifestations of something a little different from what I had previously known were others equally striking.

One of these is the moderation of Argentines in the use of alcohol. Coming, as I do, from a country where, in pursuit of a high ideal we made the ghastly mistake of prohibition, this moderation impressed and impresses me as something very, very fine.

And in the things of the spirit, in seeking to weigh more truly the Argentine psychology, I found borne in on me as a conspicuous Argentine trait, the strength of the family tie. The Argentine social fabric, it seems to me, is both patriarchal and matriarchal, and the filial devotion which I have remarked in my brief life here is, I think, as powerful as any to be found

Address delivered before the University Club of Buenos Aires.



SAN MARTÍN PLAZA, BUENOS AIRES

Behind the square rises one of the new apartment houses which are becoming popular with young married couples as their first homes. It faces the broad expanse of the Río de la Plata, whose waters, silvered and painted by the sunset, mirror innumerable vessels from distant ports.

in the world. In saying this I recall the pessimistic remark of an Argentine friend that this family tie is being weakened. I did not, I do not, agree. It is true that its outward manifestations are changing. With the demolition or abandonment to other uses of lovely old residences families are being physically divided; many young folk are beginning married life in huge apartment houses. But the devotion uniting parent and child, a vivifying stream which flows in both directions, remains unaltered. And so, and to repeat, I would place this tie of family as the most outstanding trait in Argentine psychology and as constituting one of the greatest elements of strength of the Argentine Nation.

Next to be remarked in the soul of the people is a deep love of country, allied to a national pride which thus far has avoided

the extravagances of chauvinism, and I hope may continue to do so.

Again I remark in Argentina a love of liberty, which, if it oftentimes skirts the precipice of a fierce impatience of restraint, is a quality but too rare in many countries today.

Learning Spanish

It was natural that in my efforts to sound the depths of the national character I should take up the study of Spanish. One of the two methods I followed in this attempt was to listen to records on the gramophone and to repeat in a parrot-like manner some of the phrases. It was a knowledge of this that induced the Argentine Ambassador in Washington, Espil, following my frantic struggle with the subjunctive in conversation with him, to

remark: "Weddell, tiene Vd. un acento gramófono!"¹

My other Spanish teacher was the radio; but after a reasonable course in this,—one not yet altogether abandoned,—I found that while I was acquiring an almost encyclopedic knowledge of various patent medicines and was qualified to advise concerning trips to Iguazú, the Sierras of Córdoba, or to the Lakes, my vocabulary and grammar were not markedly strengthened. And quite a while passed before I was aware that much of the news I was attempting—and with what effort—to extract from the radio after seven o'clock in the evening had already appeared in the afternoon papers, where it could have been acquired with far less exertion; these items, I now realize, were intended for the country. In my further pursuit of culture I also read the various luminous and other

signs. A pious and sheltered childhood had taught me that a mystic significance attached to the numbers three and seven. My sign-reading widened my knowledge to a realization that in Argentina 43 and 111 had also unusual and nicotic if not mystic implications!

City and countryside

It is only natural that a traveler to a new country should seek to find in what measure his own land and institutions and heroes are known therein; it was therefore with no little national pride that I learned that Lincoln was the name of a flourishing town in Argentina; with a somewhat modified pride I learned that Chicago, a Nueva Chicago, is recalled by a suburb of Buenos Aires. Henry Clay, a great name in the United States, I am told has become known to a large element of the local population through the immortality conferred by a

¹ *Weddell, you have a phonograph accent!*



Photograph by Rebecca Smaltz

THE AMERICAN EMBASSY, BUENOS AIRES

well-known brand of cigars! And Virginia, the venerable Commonwealth from which I come, perhaps owes its real fame in Argentina to its association with the fragrant weed we smoke!

Mr. Rudyard Kipling once remarked in an oft-quoted line: "What should they know of England who only England know." I think this may be said of the stranger who sees Argentina only through the eyes of a *Porteño*;² the observation applies equally to the visitor to New York who fails to visit the rest of the United States. And so, during my stay here, I have tried to visit all sections of the country, and it has been interesting to notice, especially in the north, in Córdoba, Salta and Tucumán and Santiago del Estero, a flavor of tradition and conservatism which is, I think, more typical of the Republic than is Buenos Aires which is, after all, the least Argentine of

² *Porteño*—a native of Buenos Aires.

Argentine cities, when one takes into consideration the many alien elements making up its population. This conservatism, this flavor of tradition, is especially noticeable in Córdoba, and in remarking this I could not but smile and think of the attitude of the average Virginian toward New York. The New Yorker doubtless regards us as a little backward, a little slow, with a betraying accent, and lacking that up-to-dateness and drive which characterizes the metropolis. Is there a slight, a vague analogy to the respective attitudes of Athens and Boeotia, that I have in mind? You will know best.

To the foreigner who has never visited the country, the pampa and the gaucho are imagined to be the peculiar manifestations of Argentine life and setting. Certainly the *pampa grandiosa* will remain as a rich source of national health and wealth to Buenos Aires, *patria hermosa* but the gaucho



AVENIDA LEANDRO N. ALEM

The residents of Buenos Aires have had no hesitancy in adopting the most modern style of architecture.

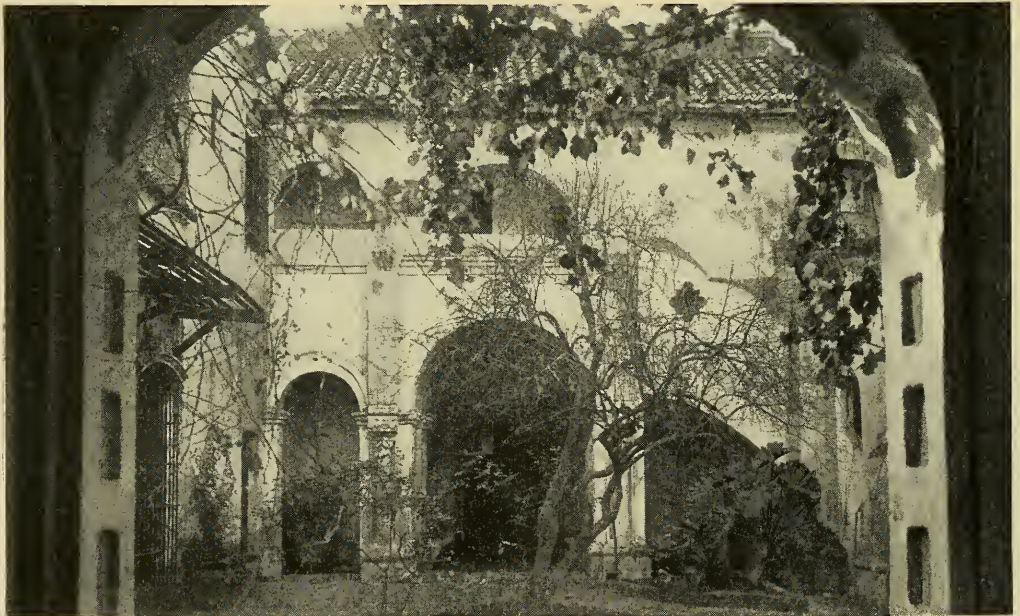
has almost disappeared from the landscape (as has our equally picturesque cowboy), yet lives today in the great epic of Martín Fierro and in the magnificent historic canvases of the great painter Quirós, which won such enthusiastic admiration in the United States. As for the negroes whom, with a lively recollection of my own country, I had thought to find in large numbers here, it was a full month before I saw even one, and he was in a museum—the door-keeper!

Personal liberty and freedom of the press

Any serious attempt to assay the forces and influences at work in Argentina must logically take into account the existence of a Constitution setting forth and upholding the great fundamental principles of personal liberty and representative government, and in this connection I consider it an especial honor to recall

to you the words of the distinguished committee of the Convention which drafted amendments to the Argentine Magna Carta. They said: "The basis for the Commission's action in formulating its reforms has been the belief and the experience of an analogous and similar Constitution—that of the United States—because it is the one most applicable, and because the Constitution of the United States is the only one written by and for the people."

Common to both Constitutions are clauses insuring the freedom of the press. Under this aegis in both countries great newspapers have been founded and survive. And it can be asserted that in naming the five or six great newspapers of the world today, at least two Argentine newspapers must be included in the group. These two papers which I have in mind are outstanding in their independence of



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THE HOUSE OF THE VICEROY, CÓRDOBA

The University, founded in 1613, and this colonial house, now a museum, add to the flavor of tradition that is especially noticeable in Córdoba, although it is a city of 300,000 with many industries.

thought as manifested in their editorial and news columns and in their jealous care that the freedom of the press guaranteed under the Argentine Constitution shall not be diminished.

And just here, when I consider the value of a free press in a country, I should like to quote words concerning it written in the eighteenth century by a man who knew what constituted true liberty; I refer to that dynamic, vitriolic writer who wrote under the pseudonym of "Junius" and whose identity is not yet fully established,—"Engrave in your mind", he says, "teach your children, that a free press is the only safeguard of all civil, political, and religious rights."

But a greater than Junius had earlier spoken on this fundamental subject: John Milton, in 1644, in his *Areopagitica*, wherein, in addressing the English Parliament, he pleads to be given "above all liberties . . . the liberty to know, to utter and to argue freely." This great

declaration is echoed more than a century later by Thomas Jefferson: "I have sworn upon the altar of God eternal hostility against every form of tyranny over the mind of man." The evil features of an unbridled press are self-evident; but the excesses of such a press will be corrected, with the passage of time, through the operation of a healthy public opinion which itself is best nurtured by an unshackled press.

It is not too much to say that the measure of freedom of the press in a country is at the same time the measure of the liberties of its citizens. Having this in mind, I congratulate you, Argentinians!

The "amiable malice" of the vaudeville

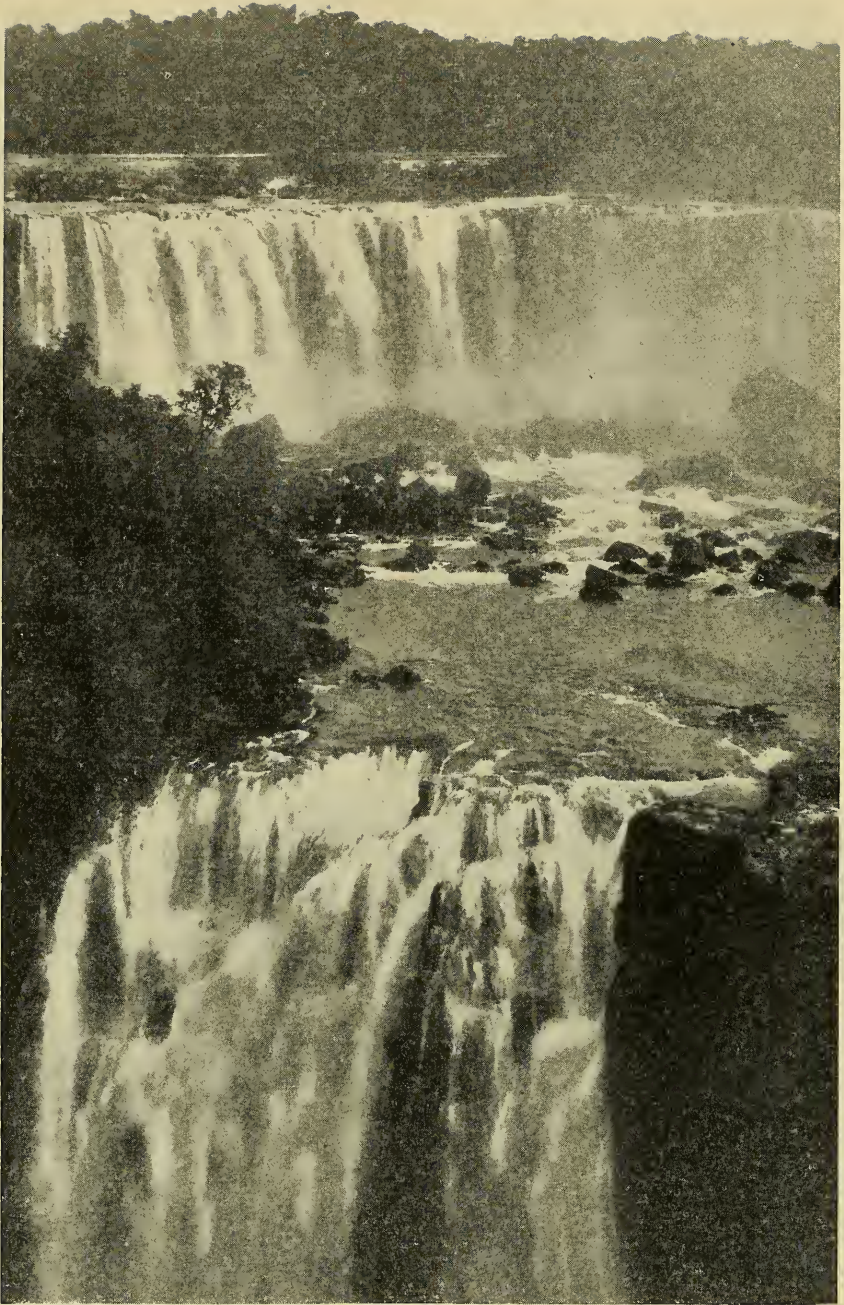
To a foreigner an amusing and pungent illustration of the independence of spirit and mocking wit prevalent in this country, to which I have endeavored in these pages to bear testimony, is to be found in the performances of some of the smaller and



Photograph by Elsie Brown

AN ESTANCIA HOME

Set in the midst of land level as far as the eye can see, the owner's house is ringed about with plantings of beautiful trees, some foreign and others native, like the ombú at the right.



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IGUAZÚ FALLS

“At Iguazú, out of the virgin forest, out of the jungle depths, the great volume of water leaps at the observer as if to prove to him his littleness.”

popular playhouses. The dialogue in its swiftness is too much like a machine gun for me to grasp; and some of the language is too much the argot of the moment for me to understand even if I caught the words. But what is inescapable is the amiable malice and biting satire which the actors display in treating of political matters. Here the analogy between things seen and heard in Argentina and in my own country becomes striking. "Mr. Dooley" whose pitiless comments on men and events in the United States some thirty years ago made him famous, and Will Rogers, equally remembered for his wise and humorous observations, find their counterpart in types like the monologist of the Maipó. Very daring, very penetrating, generally irreverent, the Argentine artists are not a whit behind their brothers in the United States and are treated with the same wise tolerance by municipal, state and federal authorities as in my own country.

National consciousness

The opening phrases of the Argentine Constitution indicate that its framers foresaw the immigration movement soon to set in. And a major task before Argentina is the absorption of these new and sometimes almost unassimilable elements, something that has taxed the very best energies of my own country. In this task I cannot but feel that the national schools of Argentina have played and are playing their conspicuous part, and in the schools which I have visited here, it has been interesting to learn that the types before me, upstanding, Spanish-speaking, ardent in their youthful patriotism, have often sprung from parents born in foreign lands. It is the national school that is your true alembic out of which will be distilled from unrelated elements the pure spirit of patriotism which is to make a greater Argentina. And in their success in this

task I have no doubt. Already there are, as in my own land, the beginnings of a national consciousness, precursor of the civilization yet to be.

A mild criticism

But I have certain reproaches to address to my Argentine friends. I do so, however, with a dampened enthusiasm, recalling that I might in almost equal measure address them to my own countrymen. In this *j'accuse* I would refer first of all to the fact that with medicinal springs³ of the first quality in his own land, the Argentine too often prefers the waters gushing from some European hill or plain. I reproach the Argentine that with the beginnings of one of the two greatest river trips of the world at his very door, he yet prefers those to be found in other lands. This reference to the Paraná and to Iguazú naturally brings to memory Niagara. But there industrialism has done its worst, while at Iguazú, out of the virgin forest, out of the jungle depths, the great volume of water leaps at the observer as if to prove to him his littleness and then goes down to augment the mighty flood whose volume, miles below Rosario, provoked the admiration of the great Darwin, as he tells us in his *Voyage of the Beagle*. Some of you will recall here the observation which the widow of Theodore Roosevelt wrote in the visitor's book as she was leaving Iguazú—"My poor Niagara!" Again, in the far south I have traveled over lakes and seen snow-capped mountains which are second in sublimity and beauty to none in Europe, yet it is to a foreign land that the Argentine most generally will go for his winter sports.

Reverence for tradition

I have not dared to speak to you of your great traditions, because they are better

³ See "*Villavicencio, an Argentine Spa*", BULLETIN, October, 1938.



Courtesy of Ricardo C. Aldao

THE ATHLETIC AND FENCING CLUB, BUENOS AIRES

Thousands of members enjoy the privileges of this club for moderate fees. The Government gave the site for the building and contributed unclaimed lottery prizes to its erection.

known to you than they can ever be to me; it is a knowledge and appreciation which entered into you with your first sustenance. But I cannot refrain from praising your reverence for tradition, something surprising and admirable in a country which is, as my own, relatively young.

It is this reverence for tradition that gives prestige among you today to families bearing names honored in the beginnings of your history. As for myself, I cannot visit the Recoleta without being moved by the names graven over the tombs. It is the Argentina of the past which speaks to me in this national pantheon. It is a spot already grown sacred to me, and making its personal appeal, for even in my brief stay in Argentina, its gates have opened to receive the remains of men and women who honored me with their friendship

and whose families I love to count among my intimates.

Clubs

A word about Argentine clubs: There can be no doubt that the average Argentine is correctly described in the famous phrase of the great Dr. Johnson, "a clubbable man." Certainly the number and variety of clubs to be encountered here must be taken into account in any summing up of the life of the nation. I have been a happy guest in many of these institutions; in a certain fortress of conservatism to be found in the Calle Corrientes the atmosphere of cordiality and warm friendliness is not exceeded anywhere in the world; and an outstanding organization in Florida, where rare books and pictures, rare wines worthy of mention with these fruits of the mind, added to a rich cuisine, is a mecca

for the stranger within the gates. No less agreeable are the many golf courses over which I have wielded a powerful if inefficient club!

But a club which appeals to me in peculiar measure is the Gimnasia y Esgrima⁴, which is unique in its conception and operation, offering to an incredibly large number of persons and for moderate fees every advantage—and more—to be found within the portals of its aristocratic brothers of Corrientes or Florida.

Organized benevolence

It has been remarked somewhere that a measure of a country's civilization is in the character and extent of its charities; judged by this rule the Argentine must rank high. And in beneficent works it is the Argentine woman who stands out. Women of wealth, position and tradition who, one would presume, knew only the softer, easier side of life, give themselves in works of mercy to a degree as surprising as it is gratifying. In considering the various organizations at work, the great Beneficencia with its century and more of history, its unique position which secures to its officers a recognized place of honor in all solemn celebrations in the Cathedral, is striking. Charity, which in many countries is almost a Cinderella, in Argentina is a queen, possessing social and temporal power!

The great Rivadavia, speaking in 1825, when La Beneficencia was founded, told the noble band of women then composing it:

"El país espera mucho de vosotras, tened esto presente, y que éstas mis últimas palabras, sean tan eternas en vuestra consideración, como la prosperidad de la patria a quien vais a servir."⁵

How splendidly the organization has lived up to his words is something to which

even a stranger can testify. The great institution to which I have referred is like a golden thread in the beautiful fabric of faith which is the bright garment its members wear. And apropos of this faith, I am here tempted to quote words uttered by President Roosevelt when he visited Buenos Aires: "The faith of the Americas, therefore, lies in the spirit. . . . In that faith and spirit we will have peace."

Cultural contacts with the United States

I cannot end these informal observations without making reference to the happy impression made on me in noting the attempt being made to promote among Argentinians a spiritual rapprochement with men of like mind in my own country. This gratifying effort, which I beg you to believe finds its echo among many of my own people, is something which could be made to mean much to both countries. Argentina, with its aspirations, its culture, its intellectual and artistic life, could give greatly to my country and people, and in return Argentina could learn that the manifestations of our material progress, with which you are all familiar, tend to obscure spiritual forces whose values, when properly revealed, you, with your gifts, should be the first to recognize.

A lofty exponent of this desire that our two peoples should be drawn closer together with the passage of the years is the Instituto Cultural Argentino Norteamericano presided over by an Argentine friend who is at once author, poet and artist—Dr. Cupertino del Campo—in whom I find a true colleague in my happy task of translating the two peoples one to the other.

The fabric of happy memories

As I said in my beginning, my endeavor in these informal remarks is to relate to you some of my impressions of Argentina.

⁴ Club de Gimnasia y Esgrima, or Athletic and Fencing Club.

⁵ "Bear in mind that the country expects much from you, and may these, my last words, be as eternal in your memory as the prosperity of the country which you are to serve."

And in years to come there will rise up in memory certain pictures diverse in character but each with its individual charm or interest: the Rose Garden on a spring morning; the cheering crowds at the races; a gala night at the opera; the vernal beauty of the Tigre; a parade of the flower of Argentine manhood on the 9th of July; the classic beauty and grace of the women; the solemn appearance of your President before the two bodies of Con-

gress; a dinner of confraternity of the officers of the army and navy; the Te Deums on great occasions in the Cathedral; a dawn over Tronador; the sun sinking behind the Sierras of Córdoba; the stillness of the pampa on a summer's night. These pictures and many others, alike in beauty or suggestion, will remain with me to enrich my inner life when far away from this fair land which has come to be a second home.



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A SHEEP RANCH

Argentine flocks and herds constitute one of the major sources of national wealth.

Three Brazilian Landscapes

by Frans Post

ROBERT C. SMITH, Jr., Ph. D.
University of Illinois

IN 1937 the government of Pernambuco celebrated the three-hundredth anniversary of the arrival at Recife of Count Maurice of Nassau-Siegen to act as the first Dutch governor of the recently seized Portuguese provinces in the northeast of Brazil. The celebration of this anniversary included the publication of the first monograph upon the Count of Nassau's official topographer, Frans Post, the earliest European landscape painter in the western hemisphere. Neither the distinguished author¹ of this study, however, nor the present writer, who has attempted in a recent article² to establish a catalogue of Post's paintings, was familiar with all the master's works. Three new landscapes have just come to light of such importance in the *oeuvre* of this seventeenth-century painter as to warrant separate and detailed publication.

Frans Post was born at Leyden in 1612, the son of a glasspainter, Jan Janszoon Post, and the brother of the celebrated Dutch architect, Peter. He was one of the group of artists who in 1637 accompanied Maurice of Nassau to Brazil, where he remained until the prince returned to Holland in 1644. From that year until his death in 1684 he remained in Haarlem confecting a series of landscapes of Brazil, in development of the type he had already evolved at Recife. In 1645 he prepared

drawings, now in the British Museum, and the Royal Museum in Brussels, for the illustration of Caspar van Berle's *Rerum per Octennium in Brasilia*, a magnificent folio setting forth a detailed account of the gubernatorial sojourn in Pernambuco.

Hitherto only ten dated paintings could be assigned to the period of Post's residence in Brazil. A new landscape (fig. 1), however, now in the possession of Carl Freund of New York, is signed and dated 1642. In its subject matter and in the quality of its technique it fits perfectly into this small group of paintings. In the years when Post accompanied the military expeditions along the Brazilian coast from Rio Grande do Norte to Alagôas, the young Dutch master reproduced in his landscapes, with the utmost fidelity, the lagoons, the marshes, the expressive skies of the interminable coastal lowlands of the region. He found in Brazil a type of scenery which was almost the exact counterpart, save for its tropical qualities, of the Netherlandish countryside. In the Freund landscape, he portrays just such a scene, probably taken in the flats between Recife and Olinda. A series of complicated waterways traverses the foreground, while a well-worn path leads across a primitive drawbridge to the distant fortifications of Recife. The composition of the picture is essentially the same as the view of the island of Itamaracá in the Rijksmuseum at Amsterdam, a painting which Post completed in 1637. In the immediate foreground he has placed an

¹ Joaquim de Sousa-Leão, "*Frans Post, seus quadros brasileiros*", Rio, 1937.

² "*The Brazilian Landscapes of Frans Post*", "*The Art Quarterly*", vol. I, No. 4 (Autumn, 1938), pp. 239-269.



Courtesy of Robert C. Smith, Jr.

FIGURE 1.—FRANS POST: THE FORTIFICATIONS OF RECIFE

Collection of Carl Freund, New York.

identical group composed of a Dutch planter and his negro servant; but the comely mulattress with the basket of laundry upon her head is a distinguished addition. The setting of the tropical fruit tree at the left of the landscape recalls the similar position of the cactus tree in the Rio São Francisco picture of 1637, now at the Musée de la France d'Outre-mer at Vincennes; while the painting of the leaden sky, the burning sand, and the aquatic foliage suggests a companion piece at Vincennes, the 1637 landscape of the Fort of Reis Magos in Rio Grande do Norte.

Throughout the Carl Freund picture the observer is impressed by the painstaking care with which Post has reproduced the subtle distinctions which exist in the landscape, the contrasting textures of the

foliage, the differing qualities of the waters. As in the other paintings of this series, his plants could serve as illustrations for a botanical textbook; the physiognomies and costumes of his Negroes and Indians are as detailed as in the ethnographical paintings of his brilliant companion in Brazil, Albertus van der Eeckhout. But in this picture, as in all the others of the group, Post has not lost sight of the general character of the landscape in his research of detail, nor has he failed to give the impression of a particular moment in the day as a kind of foretaste of the future school of impressionism.

On the other hand, the landscape in the Julius H. Weitzner collection in New York (fig. 2) is more generalized in spirit.

Signed but not dated, it probably belongs to the period of Post's activity after his return to Haarlem, when for thirty-six years he turned out innumerable views of the landscape, the life and customs of Brazil for his noble patron, the Count of Nassau-Siegen, and a host of seventeenth century amateurs of exotic wonders. The picture represents the ruins of the Basilica of Olinda, one of the most imposing buildings erected by the Portuguese in Brazil prior to the coming of the Dutch. It is a subject which Post had twice portrayed in his Brazilian period, in the 1640 version now at the Louvre and in that of 1644 at the Instituto Historico e Geographico Brasileiro in Rio de Janeiro. He was to

undertake the subject over and over again but never does he bring us so close to the ruined Basilica as in the Weitzner picture. The painting is populated with the vivacious Negro peasants of the region in their gay red and white costumes. But they are less painstakingly rendered than in the foregoing landscape. The same faintly generalizing tendency is apparent in the clump of foliage at the right of the panel, where the extremely light *impasto* gives a kind of unreality to the scene. In the distance appears the broad sweep of the interminable misty Pernambucan *varzea*. The blue haze rising from this mass of swamps and lagoons toward a brilliant sky completes the formula of the



Courtesy of Robert C. Smith, Jr.

FIGURE 2.—FRANS POST: RUINS OF THE BASILICA OF OLINDA
Collection of Julius H. Weitzner, New York.



Courtesy of Robert C. Smith, Jr.

FIGURE 3.—FRANS POST: VIEW OF A PLANTATION IN PERNAMBUCO
Collection of R. G. Ward, London.

typical Brazilian landscape of Frans Post after his return from Recife.

Finally, in the large painting bought in 1929 by the English collector Mr. R. G. Ward (fig. 3), the artist has represented a whole plantation community on almost as comprehensive a scale as that he used for the decorations at the Dutch castle of Ryksdorp, now removed to the Amsterdam Rijksmuseum.

In the foreground we see a group of dancing slaves similar to those of the Weitzner painting. Atop a slight incline is the house of the planter, a wood and rubble half-timber construction with a steep-pitched roof of thatch built on heavy stone foundations raised high above the

ground. Beside it stands a humble *mucambo*, a building of mud and palm leaves of a type still extant throughout the north of Brazil. Below it is the simple *capela de engenho*, or plantation chapel, of the utmost severity, with the typical façade windows of the region, two squares below a circle. This chapel has an interesting wooden porch, or *alpendre*, from which the church bell is suspended as it still is in many ancient isolated Pernambucan chapels. One is tempted to identify the house beside it as the plantation chaplain's residence.

Behind the chapel is the sugar mill, the crude *casa de purgar*, the rendezvous of Negroes, bullock carts, and domineering Dutch

overseers that Post so often represented.

The large building at the right is undoubtedly the *senzala*, or quarters of the slaves.

The painting is an unequaled social document, an almost unique reproduction of the colonial appearance of the austere patriarchal plantation groups erected by the Portuguese in the sugarcane region of their great American colony. It might serve as a perfect illustration for the brilliant sociological studies of the life of the colonial *senhores de engenho* now being produced in Brazil.

Technically the picture falls short of the other two. In spite of the fact that it

badly needs cleaning, the painting is gummy and blurred throughout. The landscape formula is more rigid now than in the Weitzner panel. The plantation scene itself is encased in an artificial stage setting of the tropical foliage replete with flora and fauna of the region. Only the distant *varzea* with its limitless hazy horizon recalls the freshness of Post's earlier pictures.

These three landscapes represent the divergence in the master's work. If the first through the brilliance of its technique and the clarity of its mood offers delight to the connoisseur of painting, the other two afford invaluable information for the student of northeastern colonial Brazil.

The First Pan American Congress of Municipalities

IN compliance with a resolution of the Sixth International Conference of American States, providing that the First Pan American Congress of Municipalities should meet in Habana, the Government of Cuba announced that it would be held from November 14-19, 1938. Delegates representing all the American republics except Bolivia and members of official and diplomatic circles gathered in the hall of the Chamber of Deputies for the opening session, at which President Federico Laredo Bru of Cuba presided.

After welcoming the delegates from the cities of America, the representatives of universities and municipal organizations, and the experts who had been especially invited, President Laredo spoke of the importance of the city in national and international affairs. He also paid a

special tribute to the memory of the late Ruy de Lugo Viña, first chairman of the National Organizing Committee, who died in the tragic accident that brought to an end the goodwill flight on behalf of the Congress in December 1937.

At the opening meeting Dr. Antonio Beruff Mendieta, Mayor of Habana and Chairman of the National Organizing Committee, was elected President of the Congress and Dr. Gustavo Gutiérrez, Secretary General.

The purpose of the gathering, as stated in the invitation, was "to study and to treat in the broadest manner possible matters that bear upon city planning and upon systems of municipal administration, as well as other subjects directly or indirectly related to urban existence."

For the study of these important matters,

the Congress had the collaboration of 400 outstanding specialists in municipal affairs from all America, including delegates sent by cities, universities, associations, and corporations. Of these, 38 were from the United States. The Congress was divided into five technical committees, namely: General Topics and Intermunicipal Cooperation; Municipal Organization and Administration; Public Utilities and Public Works; Transportation Problems; and Public Safety and Social Problems and Activities. Three other committees had charge of formalities connected with the Congress.

The technical committees were organized on the opening day, and on the four ensuing days met for discussion of the many important papers presented and for the preparation of resolutions to be presented to the Congress. At the closing plenary session the Final Act, containing 80 resolutions, recommendations, and agreements, was signed.

The subjects treated in the Final Act embraced municipal government, finances, and public services; city planning; transportation; airports; public welfare; public health; police and fire departments; culture; and intermunicipal cooperation.

A significant agreement on Pan American intermunicipal cooperation provided for the establishment of the Pan American Committee on Intermunicipal Cooperation "in order that the momentum of the movement for cooperation among the Municipalities gained through the activities of the First Pan American Congress of Municipalities shall not be lost." The Committee, to be composed of not less than seven nor more than nine members, was to be appointed after the close of the Congress by the mayor of Habana, who was named chairman. Its duties are to carry out the resolutions of the Congress; to determine the seat of the Second Con-

gress (which another resolution provided should be held in not less than two nor more than four years); to report to the Second Congress the results of its investigation as to the need for and most effective organization of a permanent Pan American organization of municipalities; to cooperate with the American Committee for the International Union of Local Authorities, and serve as a clearing house of information and a means of strengthening the bonds of friendship between cities and nations; and to publish a bulletin of information on municipal affairs, if and when the necessary funds are obtained.

The Committee has been announced as follows: Antonio Beruff Mendieta, Cuba, Chairman; Luis L. Boffi, Argentina; Edison Junqueira Passos, Brazil; Ricardo González Cortés, Chile; Hector Romero Menéndez, Ecuador; Raphaël Brouard, Haiti; Daniel W. Hoan, United States; Porfirio Carlos Troconis Fonseca, Mexico; Gustavo Gutiérrez, Habana; and Louis Brownlow, Chicago. Representatives of Central America and Colombia are to be appointed. There is also a Liaison Committee, composed of Clifford W. Ham, United States, Chairman; Federico Ríos Vale, Venezuela; Carlos Contreras, Mexico; Gustavo Gutiérrez, Cuba; and José L. Franco, Cuba.

Other important resolutions or recommendations included in the Final Act approved the following: the desirability of public ownership of public utilities; the fundamental city planning principles that should be generally adopted; the principles regarding conditions of labor that should be observed in all municipalities; the establishment of employment offices, which should have control of labor contracts in the locality, keep unemployment records, provide legal counsel for labor groups, and perform any other functions of assistance to the unemployed; social control,

dealing with pure food, the establishment of public credit institutions to supplant moneylenders, and public works programs; a "health tax," to be levied as the most effective solution of the financial problems involved in providing free hospital care; basic principles of public health administration; more publicity for local history, and the suggestion that new streets and squares in American cities be named after republics, cities, and outstanding public

figures of America; and regional organizations to be established for municipal coordination and cooperation.

By resolution of the Congress, the Final Act signed by all the delegates was transmitted to the Eighth International Conference of American States, which met in Lima the following month, "for its information and proper disposition." The Lima Conference deposited the document in the Pan American Union at Washington.



PATIO OF THE MUNICIPAL BUILDING, HABANA

A solid colonial edifice, thoroughly modernized, houses the city government of Habana.

The Highest Highway in the World

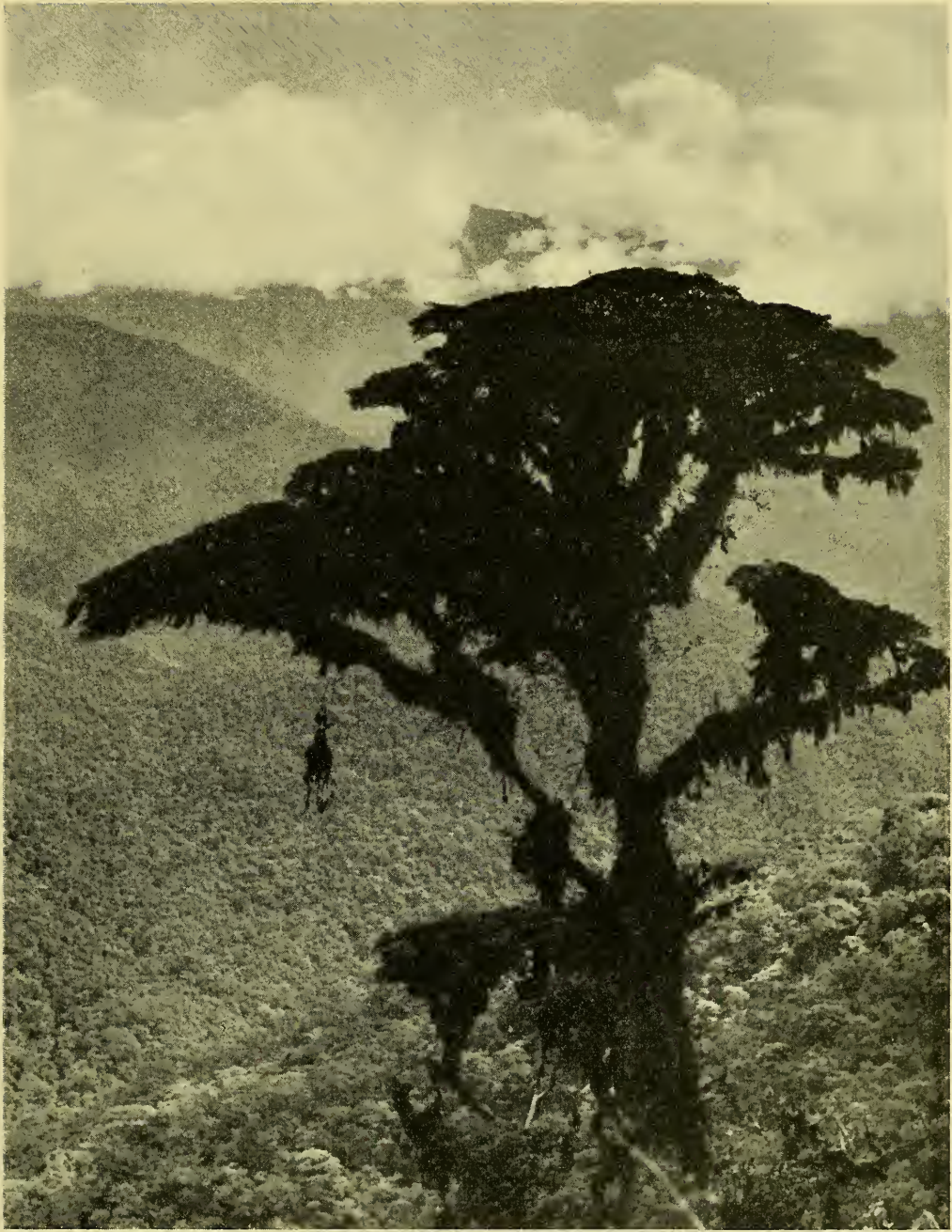
Lima to Pucalpa, Peru

THINK of starting at sea level and for 5 hours motoring steadily up through scenery that with every mile grows more imposing until you are finally crossing the Andes on a road practically 3 miles high—1,600 feet higher than the top of Pike's Peak! William LaVarre, some of whose photographs appear in the following pages, was one of the first North Americans to have this privilege, which is now being shared by an increasing number of travellers. Visitors to Lima will find this one of the most interesting excursions possible, for leaving the storied capital of Peru, with its many handsome public buildings and spacious suburbs, they can ascend to glaciers and snowpeaks, passing the terraced mountainside fields built up with stone walls in the times of the Incas, going through mining centers and colonial towns, and seeing at intervals picturesquely clad Indians occupied in herding sheep, driving a train of llamas, or spinning yarn in primitive fashion as they walk. (How long will this last beside a road over which cars and trucks are passing every day?) Then after passing the summit one can descend through tropical forests on the other side to Tarma, a little town once secluded from the world, and through fertile valleys awaiting settlers to the present end of the road at Tingo María, a center of coloniza-

tion on the Huallaga River. (Get out your map, but be sure to imagine the mountains.)

Peru had long been ambitious to connect the capital and Pacific coast with the eastern slopes of the Andes, open up the country for settlement, and bring out the tropical products, such as coffee and hardwoods, that flourish there. The only way to obtain these was to ship them by boat to the Atlantic from a port on the Amazon or one of its affluents, thence northwest to the Panama Canal, and south to the Peruvian coast. The reverse route was followed for trade with Brazil and eastern Peru in Peruvian metals, gasoline, wool, potatoes and other products. A 500-mile road would give a 5-day route from Lima to Iquitos, replacing the 4-week freighter trip. A road, however, was thought too costly because of the great obstacles presented by the lofty cordillera and the jungle on its eastern slopes.

But Enrique Pimentel, a Peruvian engineer, working under the Ministry of Promotion and its highway plan, undertook the feat and by the end of this year or before the road will be finished from Lima all the way to Pucalpa on the Lower Ucayali River. From this town boats can go down the Ucayali and Marañón to Iquitos, the port for ocean-going vessels 2,300 miles from the mouth of the Amazon.



Copyright by William LaVarre

THE EASTERN SLOPES OF THE PERUVIAN ANDES

A view of tropical forests greets the motorist from Lima who has surmounted the pass between snow-capped mountains and is descending toward the river valleys.



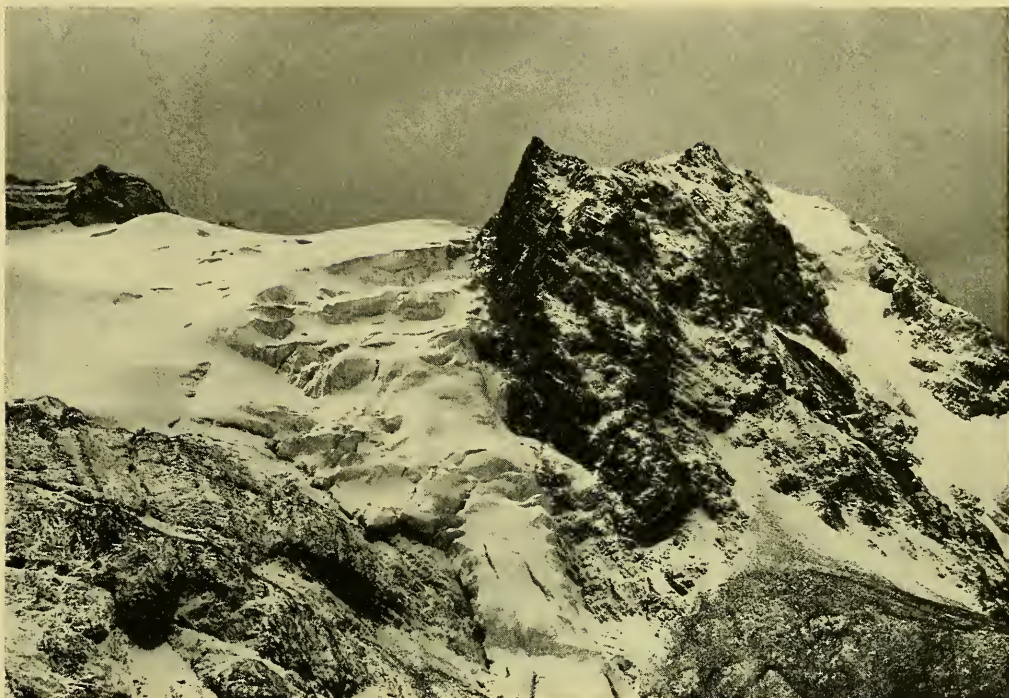
THE GOVERNMENT PALACE, LIMA

The Peruvian capital is the center of the highway system that is rapidly uniting all parts of the country.



Copyright by William LaVarre

ENRIQUE PIMENTEL, THE ENGINEER OF THE HIGHEST HIGHWAY IN THE WORLD
 The Hon. Laurance A. Steinhardt, then Ambassador to Peru (now designated to Russia), visited Señor Pimentel at his camp.



Copyright by William LaVarre

ALONG THE HIGHEST HIGHWAY IN THE WORLD

Snowy peaks tower along the road that crosses the Andes at an altitude of 15,800 feet, practically three miles.



Copyright by William LaVarre

KEEPING THE HIGHWAY IN REPAIR

Gangs of men keep the 500-mile road in condition and guard against slides.



Copyright by William LaVarre

A VANADIUM MINE

Peru is an important source of vanadium, as well as of zinc, lead, copper and silver.



Copyright by William LaVarre

A COLONIAL DEVICE FOR REFINING SILVER ORE

In these pits silver ore, reduced to a paste, was trodden by horses for days to amalgamate it with mercury and other chemicals. From the amalgam the pure silver was easily recovered.



Copyright by William LaVarre

A PREDECESSOR OF THE MOTOR TRUCK

The haughty llama has for centuries borne Andine freight along precarious paths.



Copyright by William LaVarre

ON A TRIBUTARY OF THE AMAZON

Jungle-dwellers emerge to watch the travellers from across the mountains.



Copyright by William LaVarre

SHEEP THRIVE IN PERU

The Government has imported stock to cross with native sheep in order to obtain more and better wool.



Copyright by William LaVarre

A HIGHLAND PERUVIAN INDIAN

The hats of Peruvian Indians are permanently in style, those for each village having their particular shape and design of colored trimming.



Photograph by James E. Rice

THE VOLCANOES AGUA AND FUEGO ARE IMPOSING FEATURES OF THE
GUATEMALAN LANDSCAPE

Flying around Latin America

JAMES E. RICE

General Chairman, Seventh World's Poultry Congress

THE OCCASION of this flying trip was the desire of the Seventh World's Poultry Congress and Exposition officials and of the World's Poultry Science Association to explain to the people of the Latin American countries through personal contacts the objectives, the plan of organization and method of administration of these two organizations, and to promote international cooperation in furthering their educational and commercial objectives. The congress is to be held in Cleveland from July 28 to August 7, 1939.

The route traveled included the capitals of 19 countries, as shown on the map (p. 287), and required 9 weeks' time. It represented the combined authority of the Federal Government and the poultry industry of the United States, since the Seventh World's Poultry Congress and

Exposition is a partnership educational enterprise in which there exists an appropriate division of responsibility. The response of the people was gratifying in the extreme. The actual extent of Latin American participation remains to be seen. The prospects are bright.

There was manifested everywhere a deeply sympathetic interest and a fine cooperative spirit. There was a distinctly friendly attitude and the evidence of good will toward the government and the people of the United States was unmistakable. Everywhere it was the same. Always courteous consideration and generous hospitality were accorded us, even lavishly. We were among friends.

In addition to being an official representative of the United States Government for the purposes of this trip, the



Courtesy of James E. Rice

THE AUTHOR'S MAP SHOWING HIS ROUTE THROUGH LATIN AMERICA

writer, a graduate of Cornell University, carried a list of the names and addresses at the time of graduation of 279 former Cornell students residing in Central and South America, which proved to be exceedingly useful. Furthermore, membership in the Rotary Club provided another valuable point of contact.

Before our departure for the Latin American countries the writer called at the embassy or legation in Washington of each of the countries to be visited, and explained the purpose of his trip. Without exception the officials whom we met volunteered to write to their home governments commending our mission, and assuring us that our cause would be given sympathetic consideration.

For this good will trip we were equipped with a cinema kodak with colored films, and a camera for taking still pictures in black and white for reproduction. As a result, we brought back about 1200 feet of colored movies and more than 600 other pictures of our own taking. In addition to these, we received many photographs from our friends and officials of the countries visited. They are to be shown during the Seventh World's Poultry Congress, where they will convey a clearer idea to the people of the United States of these countries and their people than would be possible through any mere description. In the meantime, they are serving the useful purpose of giving many audiences throughout the United States the benefit of a free pictorial trip to the countries south of us.

Train, automobile, boat or plane?

It may be asked which method of travel is best. That depends upon the purpose of the trip, the time available, the comparative accommodations offered to reach the destination, and the cost. When all of these factors were considered, flying

appeared to be the only feasible plan for us. The map of the route will reveal the fact that all told we journeyed 20,169 miles, mostly by air. This is roughly equivalent to the distance around the world at the latitude of New York. We traveled two nights by boat between Buenos Aires, Argentina, and Montevideo, Uruguay, and return; and by rail two nights between Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, Brazil, and return; and from Buenaventura to Bogotá, Colombia, by daylight through tropical jungles and over mountains by rail and automobile; and from La Guaira to Caracas, Venezuela, and return by automobile. Of all of these modes of travel, including motor car or bus in the cities visited, automobile travel, without doubt, offered the greatest hazard. This, at least, was true if judged by the sensations that we felt when clinging to the car as it negotiated sharp curves, and when in congested city traffic. But, nevertheless, no accident occurred. The railroads, including those in the United States from New York to Florida and from Texas to our home in New York, provided the roughest jolts but the best opportunity of seeing the country. The boat rides were taken by night and were uneventful and comfortable. So there you are. Take your choice of all of the chief popular modes of travel.

Were we afraid, dizzy or air-sick when flying? Not in the least. This was partly due, no doubt, to the fact that we had set our minds definitely to go through with the trip, sick or well; and what is of even greater significance, we quickly became obsessed with the fact that we were as safe as modern transportation could make us. The powerful modern aircraft, the high quality of the personnel on the ships and at the airports, and the further fact that the planes flew only during daylight, never taking chances due to unfavorable



Courtesy of the Cuban Department of Public Works

THE CAPITOL, HABANA

flying conditions, thanks to constant information by radio as to the state of the weather ahead, gave us the necessary assurance. On one occasion we were unable to take off from Tegucigalpa, Honduras, for El Salvador, because the plane from Nicaragua could not come down through the clouds to pick us up. Thus we lost two days of our schedule and

missed several important engagements; but this was all right with us, since we preferred to arrive late rather than to take a chance of not getting there at all.

One of the thrills of a lifetime was to glide swiftly by, and frequently it seemed to be too near by, the many extinct or occasionally active volcanoes which are to be seen with their cone-shaped summits



Photograph by James E. Rice

A SQUARE IN TEGUCIGALPA

In the center of the square rises the statue of Francisco Morazán, the national hero of Honduras.

above the clouds. The illustration on p. 286 shows the famous Agua Volcano in Guatemala, so called because many years ago it erupted large volumes of water that destroyed an entire city near its base.

The English language popular

Just to illustrate the large number of resident and non-resident English speaking people to be met in the republics to the south of the United States the following incident is related. When I was leaving the Pan American Airways office in San Salvador, El Salvador, a man who had learned that I was from the United States introduced himself. He was a resident of the country but an American by birth. While we were talking, an English-speaking, non-resident commercial traveler came up. While we three were conversing a third and then a fourth person passing

by and known to the others joined in the conversation. The last-mentioned was a Salvadorean, a graduate in engineering of an American university and past district president of Rotary International. All members of the group had been educated in the United States or England and spoke the language well. If more Spanish were taught in the educational institutions of the United States and more English in the Latin American countries, we should understand each other better.

Unity through education

Even more strikingly significant, as indicating the way in which the thirst for knowledge unites the human race, is the large number of nationalities represented in the agricultural experiment stations and educational institutions. Take for example the following classification as to nation-

ality of the staff of the agricultural research institution at Caracas, Venezuela. The Director was Italian. In the Division of Agriculture the chief was Russian; the two assistants were Cuban and Czechoslovakian. In the Division of Botany and Plant Pathology, an American was chief; in the Division of Rural Economy, a Venezuelan. In Zoology and Entomology another American was chief. The geneticist was born in British Guiana of Hindu parents. The horticulturist was a native of St. Kitts. The chemist was Austrian. The chief of the Division of Soils was Puerto Rican. The meteorologist was a Belgian-Swiss. In the Division of Animal Husbandry the chief was Panamanian, and his assistant came from the Dominican Republic. An Armenian was in charge of the sericultural work. A new member was a Spanish Basque. A summing up of the

above shows: Italy, Russia, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Venezuela, Switzerland, Panama, the Dominican Republic, Armenia, Austria and Spain, one representative each; British possessions, two; and the United States three. Of these 16 persons, one had received scientific training at Ohio State University, one at Louisiana State University, and four at Cornell University, so far as my records reveal.

Truly we may say that here is a melting pot of ideas and a training school of internationalism, although this example may be exceptional. But nevertheless a somewhat similar mingling of many nationalities in research and educational institutions would be found in other countries.

Pride of country everywhere

In all of the capitals of the 19 countries visited many impressive monuments were



Photograph by James E. Rico

THE AIRPORT, GUATEMALA CITY

This handsome building is among the finest airports in Latin America.



THE BOLÍVAR MONUMENT, PANAMA

The memory of Bolívar is honored not only by the six nations that he freed from Spain, but also by all the American Republics, which he was the first to summon for conference together.

seen. These are found in the handsome public squares, beautiful parks and along the spacious boulevards. They were erected to the memory of national heroes in commemoration of their lives of service to their country in times of war and of peace. Such memorials perpetuate the memory of the discoverers, pioneers, statesmen, liberators, emancipators, educators, authors, musicians, architects, public benefactors and others.

Every city is also graced with the architectural beauty of many public buildings, such as art museums, libraries, schools,

theaters, cathedrals, hospitals, hotels and airports. In many of these were seen paintings and statuary commemorating notable events and persons who rose above the level of the masses in leadership in their respective fields.

Observing these testimonials in stone and reading the legends carved thereon, one could see clearly repeated in motive, thought and deed a counterpart of the early and later history of the United States of America.

The United States of America is not the only country that fought for and won its independence as a nation and each year celebrates its own "Fourth of July." The commemoration of the declaration of independence, or its equivalent, in each of the countries brings home to us the significant fact that we of the Americas have much in common. It would be well for all of us to read the history of the rise of our sister republics. The following is a list of the chief national holidays of the American Republics:

LATIN AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE DAYS

Argentina.....	July 9, 1816 (Declaration of Independence)
Bolivia.....	August 6, 1825 (Declaration of Independence)
Brazil.....	September 7, 1810 (Declaration of Independence)
Chile.....	September 18, 1810 (Deposition of last Spanish Captain General and beginning of struggle for independence)
Colombia.....	July 20, 1810 (Declaration of Independence)
Costa Rica.....	September 15, 1821 (Declaration of Independence)
Cuba.....	May 20, 1902 (Inauguration of first President)
Dominican Republic.....	February 27, 1844 (Separation from Haiti)
Ecuador.....	August 10, 1809 (Proclamation of Independence of Quito)

Guatemala	September 15, 1821 (Declaration of Independence)
Haiti	January 1, 1804 (Declaration of Independence)
Honduras	September 15, 1821 (Declaration of Independence)
Mexico	September 15 and 16, 1810 (The Cry of Dolores, beginning of movement for independence)
Nicaragua	September 15, 1821 (Declaration of Independence)
Panama	November 3, 1903 (Declaration of Independence)
Paraguay	May 14 and 15, 1811 (Bloodless revolution, achieving independence)
Peru	July 28, 1821 (Declaration of Independence)
El Salvador	September 15, 1821 (Declaration of Independence)

Uruguay	August 25, 1825 (Declaration of Independence)
Venezuela	July 5, 1811 (Signing of Declaration of Independence)

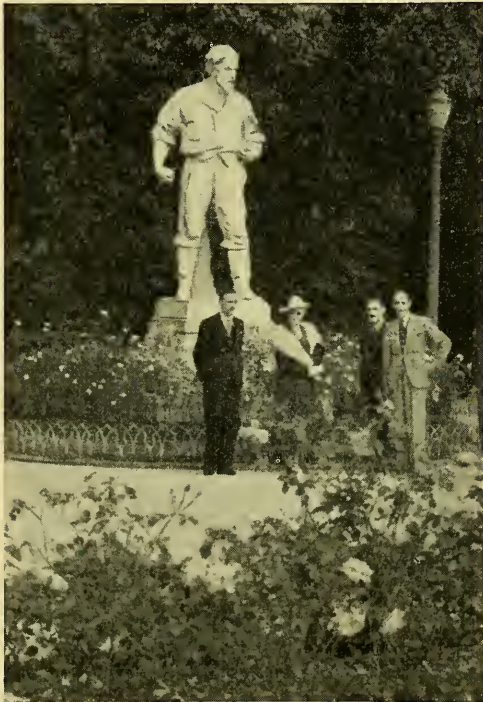
We were fortunate to be in Guatemala City on a patriotic holiday. There, as in the United States, were the street decorations, the national flags flying, the bands playing martial music, the national anthem, the tramp, tramp of feet in the parades, the sidewalks crowded with visitors, the toy balloons, the refreshments and the enthusiastic expectancy of the people waiting to see the government officials on the reviewing stand, and soldiers and others as they passed in review. All reminded us of home.

We were told that visitors and troops were there from all of the provinces of Guatemala, some of them having traveled many miles on foot to witness or to participate in this patriotic celebration. The air fleet maneuvered. Representatives from other countries were there as guests of the Guatemalan government. In recognition of this national celebration the churches of the country held impressive services.

This was all deeply significant. The significance lay in the fact that loyalty, pride of ancestry, love of home, church and country are no monopoly of race or nation in any part of the world, but lie deeply imbedded in the human heart. Over and over came to mind the words of Scott:

Breathes there the man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land!

Perhaps the best measure of the advancement of a people in the march of civilization is to be found in its sense of appreciation for the greatness of the contributions that have been made by eminent scholars, scientists, merchants, farm-



Photograph by James E. Rice

ANHANGUERA, A BRAZILIAN DANIEL BOONE

The city of São Paulo commemorates by this statue a picturesque pioneer of early days.

ers, soldiers, statesmen and philanthropists of their own and other countries to the advancement of their national culture, prosperity and independence.

We should know our neighbors

It would appear that we of the United States have been so preoccupied with our own progress as a nation that we have not become fully conscious of the vast empires south of us, of their unlimited natural resources, their magnificent scenery, their adequate deep water harbors, their great modern cities, their enterprise and their centuries-old and modern culture.

The writer heard Paul Harris, the founder of Rotary International, say after completing a round-the-world tour that Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, and Buenos Aires, Argentina, were the two most beautiful cities that he had ever seen: the former from the standpoint of scenic beauty and the latter from an architectural and engineering standpoint.

How many of us are aware of the fact that the Amazon, the largest river in the world, is nearly 200 miles wide where it enters the sea, that Brazil is larger than the United States with almost sufficient room to spare to include another State of Texas, and that it is nearly as large as all of the rest of South America?

The countries of Latin America differ greatly in size, topography, temperature, rainfall, altitude, coast lines, geological formation and natural resources, which are largely responsible for their agricultural, industrial and commercial development, and consequently their economic progress and the growth of their cities and culture. But each country possesses certain national assets and special attractions in its own right. For example, Venezuela can boast among other accomplishments of having paid off its foreign debt. Similarly Guatemala not only takes pride in

her neat capital, but she can boast of an equal rate of exchange for her quetzal with the American dollar. Several countries pride themselves on producing the finest quality of coffee, bananas, pineapples, or sugar cane, due to their excellent soil, correct elevation and proper climatic conditions for bringing each of these crops to perfection. Many countries are proud, too, of having evidence of early civilizations on the American continent.

Progress in the Latin American countries

In most, if not all, of the countries that we visited, marked evidence of progress was shown by the large number of public improvements being made and new buildings under construction. The erection of educational institutions and hospitals, slum clearance, resettlement schemes, and the construction of highways and bridges appeared to be the outstanding new developments. Clearly the Latin American countries are on the go.

All eyes on Latin America

All of the principal commercial countries of the world appear to have their eyes on the republics to the south of the United States, if one may judge by the large number of persons of many different nationalities whom we met on planes, at hotels, on the streets, and at public meetings and receptions. The people of the Latin American countries should be grateful for this rivalry of the countries for their business, since "competition is the life of trade."

What of the future?

Economically speaking, the future of the Latin American countries is bright. The one handicap to their progress has been a lack of adequate transportation facilities. This age-old obstacle is rapidly being overcome. Far faster, cheaper and safer trans-



A HILLTOP PARK IN SANTIAGO

The Chileans take pride in their beautiful squares and parks, brimming with flowers. At the left of the picture is seen the statue of Pedro de Valdivia, who founded Santiago in 1541.

portation by air will go hand in hand with similar improvements in transportation by rail, by water and by highways. The rapid progress being made in the construction of the great Pan American Highway and connecting roads is apparent in many of the countries. This eventual opening up of the entire hemisphere to automobile and truck transportation is destined to bring about great improvements. These improved communications will be responsible for surmounting natural obstructions and extending commerce, education and social intercourse throughout the western hemisphere.

As with transportation, so also with communication. The telegraph, the telephone, the radio are transcending all barriers and tending to make the people of the world near neighbors, and should prove to be one of the most important factors in bringing about universal peace through a common intelligent understanding of national problems and human relations and through the mutual acquaintance which breeds respect.

United States of America will Extend Welcome

It is hoped that as a result of the writer's visit to the countries of Latin America, of which the foregoing gives some impressions, there will be a large number of visitors from the other American Republics at the Seventh World's Poultry Congress and Exposition. The Mercantile Exchange of the City of New York will greet those who arrive at the port of New York from other countries and extend to them the courtesies of the City and guidance while there.

The Louisiana State Seventh World's Poultry Congress Committee is planning to receive visitors who come through the port of New Orleans. It is expected that similar courtesies will be offered at other United States ports of entry.

July 23 has been designated by the New York World's Fair the Seventh World's Poultry Congress and Exposition Day.

On July 25 and 26 the visitors from other countries will visit Washington, D. C., where they will be received by Government officials and will visit many points of historic, scientific and scenic interest.



De la Revista de la Escuela de Bellas Artes, Quito

The First South American Botanical Congress

CARL O. ERLANSON

Division of Plant Exploration and Introduction, Bureau of Plant Industry, United States Department of Agriculture; Delegate of the United States to the Congress

THE important relationship between agricultural development and knowledge of the world's flora is becoming more and more appreciated. All of the crops now grown have been at some time derived from wild plants, although in many cases the original ancestors of cultivated plants can only be surmised. The derivation of other crops, such as the avocado, cashew, tung-oil tree, rubber, and pistache, is either a matter of historical knowledge or their modification under cultivation has not been great enough to conceal their affinity to the original wild forms.

We are indebted to South America for many of our important economic as well as ornamental plants, a few of the better known being tomato, potato, peanut, quinine, rubber, cashew, calceolaria, petunia and nasturtium. And yet our knowledge of the vast plant riches of South America is still hardly more than superficial. The study of the plant life of South America has probably never been as actively pursued as it is at present, not only in that continent, but by scientists of other parts of the world. It is therefore of great significance that the framework has been erected to correlate botanical activity in a united effort between countries and institutions.

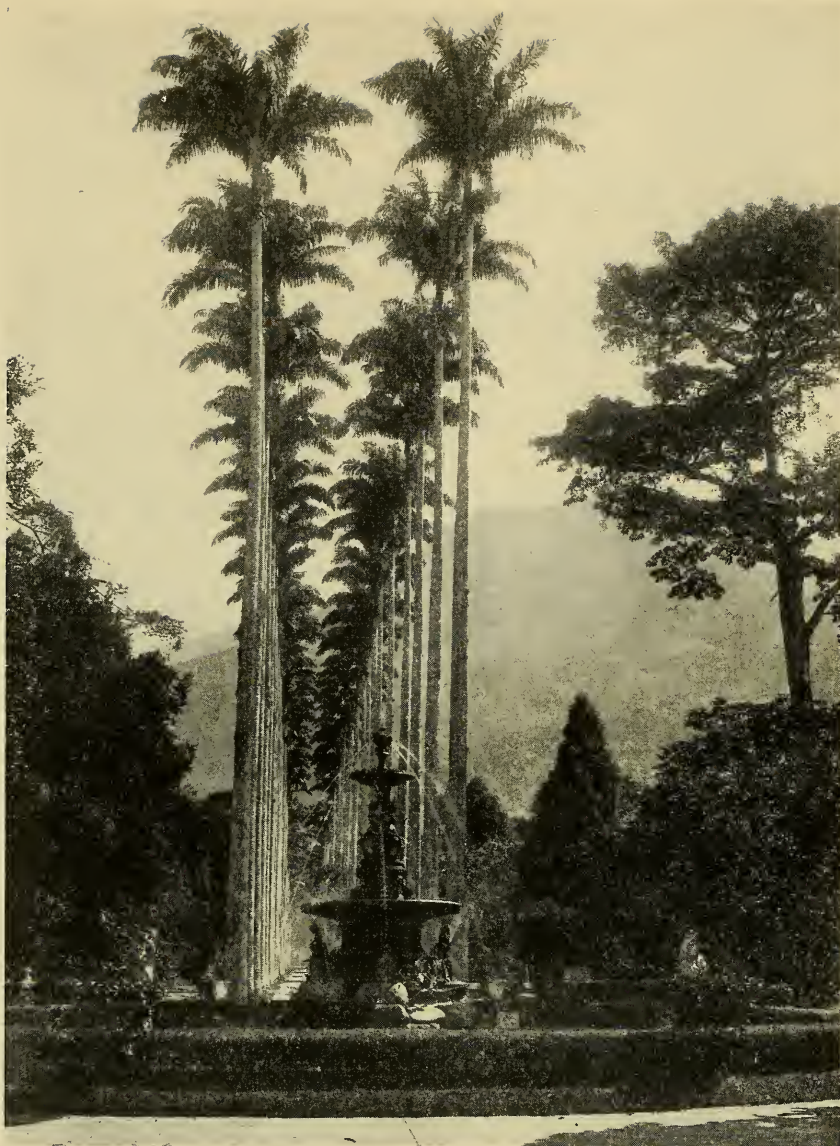
The First South American Botanical Congress held its meetings at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, during the week October 12-19, 1938. The Congress was the result

of efforts made by some of the leading botanists of South America to bring about such a gathering in order that a definite program of cooperation in botanical research could be initiated for the several South American nations and colonies.

Although the Congress was specifically for South American botanists, other nations were invited to send botanical representatives and Cuba, England, The Netherlands, Germany, and the United States were thus represented. Chile, Peru, Paraguay and British and French Guiana were represented at the general meetings by members of the diplomatic corps.

The greater part of four days was occupied in the reading and discussion of well over a hundred technical papers on various botanical and agricultural subjects. The papers given were about equally divided in the following fields of research: Systematic Botany, Microbiology, Morphology, Physiology, Genetics, Phytogeography and Applied Botany. Since the time was short and the papers numerous, the various fields of work were discussed in concurrently running sections and the delegates attended the sections which dealt with their particular field.

Two days of the Congress were devoted to trips out of the city in order that visiting delegates could see some of the distinctive features in the nearby country. One of the trips was to the beautiful resort area about the town of Petropolis



THE BOTANICAL GARDEN, RIO DE JANEIRO

The delegates to the First South American Botanical Congress enjoyed especially their visit to the famous Botanic Garden and its vast collections. A background of mountains and three avenues of royal palms, converging at a fountain, lend majesty to the scene.

which lies well up in the mountains some three hours' drive by car on an excellent highway from Rio de Janeiro. Here the delegates caught glimpses of virgin forest and made a highly interesting visit to a large private display of orchids. The officials of the town of Petropolis were hosts at a luncheon for the delegates. The other trip was a more extensive journey by rail to view the *restinga* vegetation of the sea-coast.

Doctor P. Campos Porto, Director of the Biological Institute and Botanic Garden at Rio de Janeiro and also President of the Committee of Organization for the Congress, was host at a garden party for the delegates. The setting was of exquisite beauty, in the Botanic Gardens with royal palms and mountains for background and countless orchids blooming on all sides. Leading Brazilian artists contributed to the entertainment with folk dances and songs as well as classical music.

Two plenary sessions of the Congress were held during which several important

resolutions were approved for recommendation to the respective governments. The following, of general interest, may be mentioned here:

Establishment of regional botanic gardens.—Each country is to choose areas within its limits to set up arboreta or botanic gardens where the representative flora of the region may be studied. These botanic gardens will form a South American system for exchange of information between the various regions of South America.

Establishment of a South American Botanical Bureau.—Each country will establish a central bureau which will be charged with the task of bringing together botanical information pertinent to that country. It is intended that the bureaus in each country will eventually become federated for the whole of South America and that eventually there will be established a central bureau for the continent.

Supervision and regulation of exploration.—Each country shall recommend that its government promulgate regulations so



A LILY POOL IN THE BOTANIC GARDEN, RIO

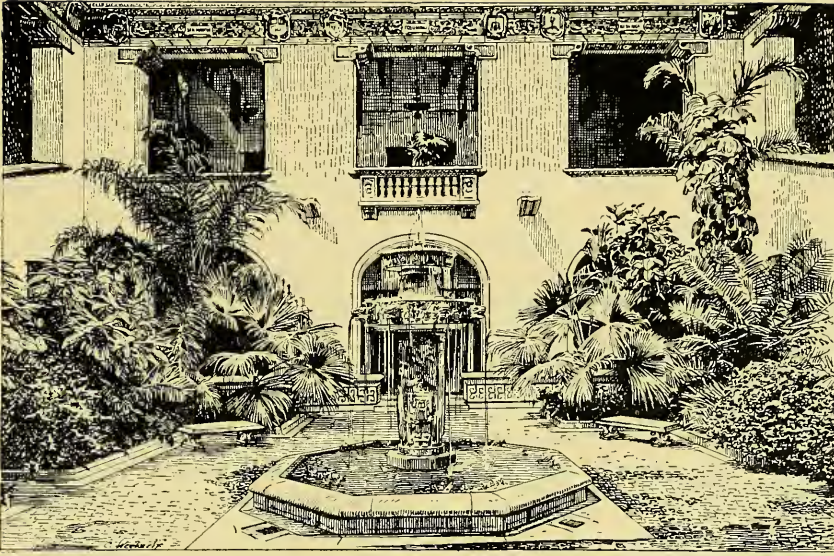
that exploration cannot take place without the previous knowledge and permission of the government. Duplicates of all collections shall be left in the country and the export of unique or rare collections shall be forbidden.

At the opening meeting permanent officers were elected for the years 1939-1942. They are as follows: President, Doctor Alberto Castellanos, Museum of Natural History, Buenos Aires, Argentina; Vice-President, Doctor Fernando Rosa Mato, Museum of Natural History, Montevideo, Uruguay; Secretary-General, Doctor Fer-

nando Silveira, Institute of Education, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. It was proposed by the delegation from Argentina that the Second South American Botanical Congress be held at the Instituto Miguel Lillo at Tucumán, Argentina, in 1942. This was unanimously approved.

Brazil, famous for its generous hospitality, surpassed even this reputation as host to the delegates of the Congress and congratulations should be extended to Doctor Campos Porto and the Committee of Organization for a well-planned and well-executed program.





Pan American Union NOTES

PAN AMERICAN DAY

The celebration of Pan American Day, April 14, was opened at the Pan American Union by a special session of the Governing Board, convened in the Hall of the Americas to hear President Roosevelt, who had been invited to address the Board upon this occasion. He began by saying, "I am happy to be with the Pan American Union on its forty-ninth birthday," and continued with a significant address broadcast to all the American Republics and to Europe.

In the evening a concert of Latin American music was played by the United States Navy Band Orchestra. There were two soloists, Natalia Garland de Cook, a Peruvian singer, and Bernardo Segall, a Brazilian pianist. The Hon. Cordell Hull, Chairman of the Governing Board and Secretary of State of the United States, addressed the audience.

Both President Roosevelt's and Mr. Hull's addresses will be printed in full in the next issue of the BULLETIN.

GOVERNING BOARD

At a regular meeting held on April 5, 1939, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union welcomed two new members, Dr. Carlos Martins Pereira e Sousa, Ambassador of Brazil, and Sr. Guillermo Gazitúa, Chargé d'Affaires of Chile.

Resolution of condolence

The Board passed a resolution on the death of a former member, which reads as follows:

WHEREAS, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union has learned with deep regret of the death of Dr. Carlos Manuel de Céspedes, former President of the Republic of Cuba and Ambassador of Cuba to the United States and member of the Governing Board; and

WHEREAS, Dr. Céspedes was always a constant

and sincere friend of the Pan American Union and during his long public career rendered valuable services to the cause of Pan Americanism and to the progress of this institution:

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

1. To place on the minutes of this meeting an expression of its profound regret at the death of the distinguished Cuban statesman who made such important contributions to the improvement of the cultural, material, and political relations of the countries and people of Americas; and

2. To request the Director General to send a copy of this resolution to the Government of Cuba and to the family of the deceased, together with the expression of the sincere condolences of the Governing Board.

*Nature protection and wild life
preservation*

A resolution of the Eighth International Conference of American States recommended that the American governments adopt legislation and regulations to make effective nature protection and wild life preservation. Four steps were suggested: The compilation of legislation and information on the fauna and flora of the several countries, the establishment of a Committee of Experts, the meeting of this Committee, and the formulation of a draft convention by the Committee.

The Governing Board approved the report of its committee appointed to consider this resolution. The committee had prepared a questionnaire to be submitted to the American governments, requesting a complete set of the game laws now in force and of special legislation for the protection of migratory birds; information on the parks, reserves, and other nature monuments that have been set aside; the status of native fauna and flora; a general description of the fauna and flora, with bibliographical references, etc.; and suggestions as to the provisions to be included in a convention on international coopera-

tion among the American Republics relative to the preservation of fauna and flora in their natural habitat. The Director General was authorized to transmit the questionnaire to the Governments, with the request that the information called for therein be sent to the Pan American Union on or before September 1, 1939.

Each Government will also be requested to designate one member to serve on the Committee of Experts, together with such aides or advisers as it may desire to cooperate with its member on the Committee. It was recommended that the members appointed be qualified to discuss the technical aspects of national parks, nature monuments, and nature reserves; the protection of vanishing species of fauna and flora in their natural habitat; and migratory birds.

The Committee of Experts will meet at the Pan American Union in May, 1940, to draw up a draft convention, as provided in the resolution of the Eighth Conference.

*Establishment of a Social and Child
Welfare Division*

A resolution of the Eighth Conference recommended that the Governing Board study the feasibility of creating a social and child welfare information center. The report of the committee appointed to consider the matter authorized the Director General to take the necessary steps to organize such an administrative division provided it is financed from outside sources for three years, after which period the Union will assume the financial responsibility for the maintenance of the division. The report was adopted.

Functions of the Pan American Union

Accepting a committee report on the functions of the Pan American Union, the

Board voted to propose to the Governments an increase in the quotas paid by the countries, members of the Pan American Union, for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1940, to permit the Union to carry out the additional duties entrusted to it by the Eighth Conference. (These quotas are assessed on the basis of population.)

Permanent Committees on Comparative Legislation and Uniformity of Legislation

A resolution of the Eighth Conference, on the Codification of International Law, provides that the Permanent Committees of Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, and Habana shall be composed of six members from other American republics in addition to the nationals appointed by the countries in which they have their seat. The Governing Board, pursuant to

its action at the preceding meeting, gave effect to this resolution by determining by lot the countries to be represented on each committee, as follows: Permanent Committee of Rio de Janeiro: Argentina, Bolivia, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Honduras, and Venezuela; Permanent Committee of Montevideo: Colombia, Guatemala, Haiti, Nicaragua, Panama, and Paraguay; and Permanent Committee of Habana: Chile, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Mexico, Peru, and the United States.

Committee of Experts on Powers of Attorney and the Juridical Personality of Foreign Companies

It was voted to request the American republics that have not done so to submit their observations on the draft code on powers of attorney transmitted to them some time ago.

NECROLOGY

JOAQUIM FRANCISCO DE ASSIS BRASIL.—On Christmas Day, 1938, Dr. Assis Brasil, internationally known as a diplomat and man of letters, died in Brazil at the age of 81. Dr. Assis Brasil was born in São Gabriel, Rio Grande do Sul, and educated there and in the Law School in São Paulo. He was early interested in politics and took a prominent part in the Republican movement, being elected state representative to the Constituent Assembly after the proclamation of the Republic. Although he held subsequent political offices, he preferred writing and his books on the politics of his time have now become classics. His diplomatic career began with his appointment as Ambassa-

dor to Portugal at a time when relations between the two countries were strained. He accomplished his mission with great success and was appointed Ambassador to the United States in 1898, where he was also Brazilian member on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

The settlement of the boundary between Bolivia and Brazil next called for his services; he took part in the conferences, and was one of the Brazilian signers of the treaty of November 17, 1903, which concluded this matter. Dr. Assis then retired to his model farm in Rio Grande do Sul, but was called to participate again in politics in 1930. He was Minister of Agriculture in the provisional govern-

ment and Ambassador-designate to Argentina in 1931. At the age of 74 he retired definitely from public life.

JORGE CALVO MACKENNA.—On November 2, 1938, the distinguished Chilean engineer Jorge Calvo Mackenna died in Santiago, Chile. Señor Calvo, who was born in Santiago in 1872, was educated at the National Institute and the University of Chile, from which he received his degree as engineer in 1897. For more than 40 years he had served the Government, chiefly in the Bureau of Public Works. He had also taught in the Catholic University of Chile. At the time of his death he was an active and highly esteemed member of several scientific and industrial societies.

CARLOS MANUEL DE CÉSPEDES Y DE QUESADA.—A former President of Cuba, Minister to the United States, and member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, Dr. Carlos Manuel de Céspedes y de Quesada, died in Habana on March 28, 1939.

Dr. de Céspedes was the son of the Cuban patriot Carlos Manuel de Céspedes y Castillo, a leader in the rebellion of 1868–78 who was titular President of the Republic in that early, unsuccessful struggle for independence. Dr. de Céspedes was born in New York City on August 12, 1871, and educated in the United States, France, and Germany. When the Revolution of 1895 broke out, he took an active part in it, serving both as an officer in the army and as Governor of the Province of Oriente. At the close of the war, he took his law degree at the University of Habana, and began a long political and diplomatic career. Among the posts held by Dr. de Céspedes were those of member of Congress, Chairman of the Commission on Tariffs and Codes, Minister to Italy (1909–12), to Argentina (1912–13), and to the United States (1914–22), and

Secretary of State of Cuba (1922–26). From 1927 to 1931 he was Minister to France.

At the close of the Machado regime, Dr. de Céspedes was sworn in as President of the Republic, on August 12, 1933, but resigned on September 5, and a few months later was appointed Ambassador to Spain, a post which he held until August 1935.

Dr. de Céspedes was also an active supporter of science and letters. He was chairman of the Cuban delegations to the Second Pan American Scientific Congress and the Second Pan American Financial Congress, held in Washington in 1915 and 1920, respectively. He was a member of the Cuban Academy of History and other learned societies in Cuba and abroad, and had been decorated by France, Venezuela, and other countries. He was the author of many works, chiefly legal or historical in nature.

ENRIQUE HERNÁNDEZ ÁLVAREZ.—The Mexican Minister of Public Welfare, Dr. Enrique Hernández Álvarez, died in Mexico City on November 2, 1938. He was born in Ciudad González, Guajuato, on June 24, 1892 and received his early education in the city of his birth. He was graduated from the National School of Medicine in Mexico City in 1917 and practiced first in his native state. His political career began with his election as deputy to the state legislature, where he served four terms. In 1930 he was made Governor of the State. Dr. Hernández was called to represent the Government before the Cooperative Society of Henequen Growers in Yucatan, a task which he performed with great credit. He was recalled to Mexico City to be Chairman of the Board of Directors of Public Welfare in the Federal District. When in 1937 the former National Board of Public Welfare was made a Government De-

partment, Dr. Hernández was appointed the first Minister of that portfolio, a position he held until his death.

CARACCILO PARRA LEÓN.—The death of the talented young Venezuelan historian, writer, and statesman, Dr. Caracciolo Parra León, at the early age of 38, occurred in Caracas shortly after his return from Lima, where he had attended the Eighth International Conference of American States as a delegate of his country.

Dr. Parra was deeply interested in education, and even before receiving his doctorate in political science, had taught in secondary schools. Later he taught law in the School of Political Science of the Central University, in Caracas, of which he was vice-rector from 1928–33. In 1936 he was director of the National Library. From 1936–38 he was chief of the Division of Inter-American Relations in the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, and in 1938 chief of the Division of Political Relations in the same Ministry.

Dr. Parra was a member of the Venezuelan Academies of Letters and of History, and of learned societies in Europe and the Americas. He had written several books on Venezuelan history and many articles dealing with philosophy, criticism, law, and history.

CARLOS REYLES.—One of the foremost literary figures of Hispanic America, Carlos Reyles, died in Montevideo on July 24, 1938, in his 70th year. As a young man of independent means, Señor Reyles was able to travel extensively and to devote himself to his two main interests, literature and cattle breeding. On the great estate he had inherited, he continued the agricultural experiments begun by his father, and spent much of his life improving and enlarging his estancia. His first novel, *Beba*, combined a faithful picture of estancia life in 1895 with propaganda for improved stock-breeding. It indicated some

of the qualities brought to maturity in later works—psychological insight, as in *La Raza de Caín*; sociological interests, as in *El Terruño*; and strong feeling for color, as in *El Embrujo de Sevilla*. All his work was “forceful in thought and written in a vigorous style notable for its clarity and perfection of idiom,” to quote a compatriot.

Señor Reyles was chairman of the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation of the P. E. N. Club of Montevideo, and had only recently resigned as President of the SODRE (Servicio Oficial de Radio Eléctrico). A few days before his death the Argentine Academy of Letters had elected him to membership.

PLÁCIDO DANIEL RODRÍGUEZ RIVERO.—On February 21, 1939, Dr. Plácido Daniel Rodríguez Rivero, a prominent Venezuelan scientist, president of the Central University, and Director of Public Health, died in Caracas at the age of 62. Dr. Rodríguez had been an outstanding figure in Venezuelan medical circles, having studied at the Central University in Caracas and later at the University of Paris. In 1926–27 he was appointed Governor of Puerto Cabello. Dr. Rodríguez was a member of the National Academy of Medicine in Caracas and of many medical and scientific organizations in other countries. He had been decorated by Venezuela and made an official of the Legion of Honor of France. For more than 30 years he had written on medical subjects, having a long list of important books to his credit.

BAUTISTA SAAVEDRA.—Former President Bautista Saavedra of Bolivia died in Santiago, Chile, on March 30, 1939 at the age of 68. Shortly after receiving his law degree, Dr. Saavedra became professor in the school of law and political science at the University of La Paz and at the same time was editor of the newspaper *El Telégrafo*. He entered public life as Chief

of the Boundary Section of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in 1903. The following year he was sent by the government to Spain to study all historic documents relating to Bolivia in the archives of that country. After two years of research he returned with material of great value to his country in boundary questions. For two years he was Minister of Public Instruction in Bolivia and then, in 1912-13, he represented his country in Peru. In 1914 and 1918 he was a member of the National Congress as senator and deputy respectively. Dr. Saavedra was a member of the provisional government that assumed power on July 12, 1920, and was elected President of the Republic by the National Convention called soon thereafter, taking office on January 26, 1921. When his term of office was over he was still prominent in politics until exiled in 1934 by the Government. With a change of administration he was offered a cabinet portfolio, which he declined. He was a member of the delegation to the Chaco Peace Conference in Buenos Aires in May 1935. Dr. Saavedra was the author of notable volumes on sociology, history, education and the Bolivian-Peruvian boundary dispute.

JOSUÉ SMITH SOLAR.—The Republic of Chile lost one of its outstanding architects with the death of Josué Smith Solar on November 26, 1936. Señor Smith was educated in the United States; after receiving his degree as an architect and traveling widely, he returned to Chile to practice his chosen profession. His great talent was evident from the first, and the vitalization of architectural studies in Chile has been due largely to his stimulus and inspiration. Among the many buildings that are monuments to his skill and taste is the restoration of the Palacio de la Moneda, a colonial structure, once the Mint, now housing presidential and other

administrative offices of the government. In partnership with his son he designed many of the most interesting buildings in Chile, including the Treasury and the buildings of the Santa María University in Valparaíso.

ALFONSINA STORNI.—The death of the noted Argentine poet Alfonsina Storni, which occurred in Mar del Plata on October 25, 1938, is a great loss to her native country and to all Spanish America. She was universally admired for her poetic talent and her charming personality. Her childhood was passed in poverty, but by assiduous study she obtained her teacher's certificate, working unceasingly until she achieved the position of director of a charitable institution. During that period she made every effort to enlarge her background and make a way for herself in literature. She was one of the first women in Argentina to devote herself to literature not as a hobby but as a life work, and at the time of her death she had published notable books of sonnets, ballads, and lyrics, which won for her a wide and discriminating audience. She contributed to the *Nación* of Buenos Aires under the pen-name of Tao-Lao, and her work was also published in literary magazines.

GUILHERME STUDART.—Baron de Studart, a Brazilian physician and man of letters, died on September 26, 1938, at the age of 82. He was born in Ceará, where his father was British vice consul, and educated in private schools there. He received his medical degree in 1877, and practiced his profession with distinction.

In the field of letters he was especially drawn to history, where his keen analytical sense and patient research made his work outstanding. He was the author of over 100 volumes in all, whose subject matter included medicine, history, criticism, and fiction.

Baron de Studart was a member of scientific and learned societies not only in

Brazil, but in many countries of Europe and America.

JOSÉ ANDRÉS URTECHO.—On August 2, 1938 José Urtecho died in Managua, Nicaragua. Señor Urtecho studied at the Military Academy at West Point, where he obtained his training as engineer, and then returned to his native country to practice his profession. He was Minister of War in 1912 and later held the portfolios of Public Instruction and Foreign Affairs.

In 1920 he was a candidate for the presidency of the Republic. During the recent boundary dispute with Honduras he attended the Conference held in San José, Costa Rica, as counsellor of the Nicaraguan delegation and distinguished himself for his untiring labors and his profound knowledge of the subject. Señor Urtecho was a member of the Nicaraguan Academy of Letters and of the Academies of Geography and History of Nicaragua and Honduras.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General*

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima, Peru, in 1938. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant

Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, intellectual and agricultural cooperation, juridical matters, and travel, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 100,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



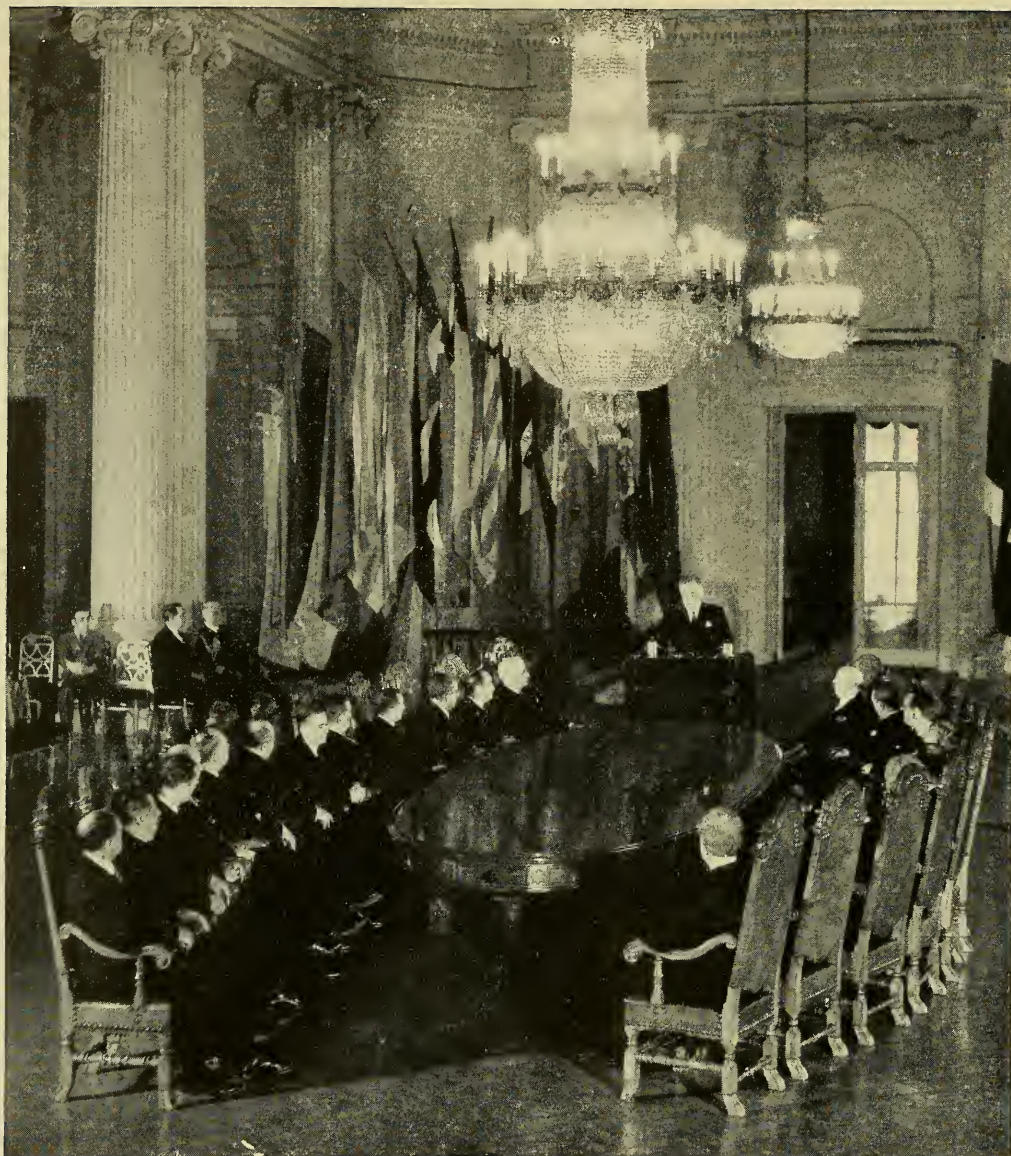
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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: HALL OF THE AMERICAS, PAN
AMERICAN UNION





PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT ADDRESSING THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN
AMERICAN UNION, APRIL 14, 1939

Seated at the table are the following members of the Board: At the left of the picture, beginning next to President Roosevelt, Cordell Hull, Secretary of State and Chairman of the Board; Manuel de Freyre y Santander, Ambassador of Peru; Colón Eloy Alfaro, Ambassador of Ecuador; Miguel López Pumarejo, Ambassador of Colombia; Carlos Martins Pereira e Souza, Ambassador of Brazil; Héctor David Castro, Minister of El Salvador; Ricardo Castro Beeche, Minister of Costa Rica; Augusto S. Boyd, Minister of Panama; León de Bayle, Minister of Nicaragua; Luis Quintanilla, Chargé d'Affaires of Mexico; and Julián R. Cáceres, Chargé d'Affaires of Honduras; at the right are: José Richling, Minister of Uruguay and Vice Chairman of the Board; Felipe A. Espil, Ambassador of Argentina; Pedro Martínez Fraga, Ambassador of Cuba; Diógenes Escalante, Ambassador of Venezuela; Adrián Recinos, Minister of Guatemala; Andrés Pastoriza, Minister of the Dominican Republic; Luis Fernando Guachalla, Minister of Bolivia; Élie Lescot, Minister of Haiti; José Félix Estigarribia, Minister of Paraguay; and Guillermo Gazitúa, Chargé d'Affaires of Chile. At the end of the table nearest the observer are L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, and Pedro de Alba, Assistant Director and Secretary of the Governing Board.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIII, No. 6



JUNE 1939

Pan American Day at the Pan American Union

THE "forty-ninth birthday of the Pan American Union", to use the phrase of President Roosevelt, was celebrated by that institution on April 14, 1939, at two ceremonies.

In the forenoon the members of the Governing Board, composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives of all the other American republics, gathered in special session around their conference table in the Hall of the Americas to hear President Roosevelt, who had been invited to address them on that occasion. For the third time during his administration the President came to the Union on Pan American Day to deliver a message that, thanks to radio, was carried simultaneously to the governments and people of all the Americas by long and short wave.

President Roosevelt spoke as follows:

The American family of nations pays honor today to the oldest and most successful association of sovereign governments which exists in the world.

Few of us realize that the Pan American organization as we know it has now attained a longer history and a greater catalogue of achievements than any similar group known to modern history. Justly we can be proud of it. With even more right we can look to it as a symbol of great hope at a time when much of the world finds hope dim and difficult. Never was it more fitting to salute Pan American Day than in the stormy present.

For upwards of half a century the Republics the Western World have been working together to promote their common civilization under a system of peace. That venture, launched so hopefully fifty years ago, has succeeded; the American family is today a great cooperative group facing a troubled world in serenity and calm.

This success of the Western Hemisphere is sometimes attributed to good fortune. I do not share that view. There are not wanting here all of the usual rivalries, all of the normal human desires for power and expansion, all of the commercial problems. The Americas are sufficiently rich to have been themselves the object of desire on the part of overseas governments; our traditions in history are as deeply rooted in the Old World as are those of Europe.

It was not accident that prevented South America, and our own West, from sharing the fate

of other great areas of the world in the nineteenth century. We have here diversities of race, of language, of custom, of natural resources, and of intellectual forces at least as great as those which prevailed in Europe.

What was it that has protected us from the tragic involvements which are today making the Old World a new cockpit of old struggles? The answer is easily found. A new, and powerful ideal—that of the community of nations—sprang up at the same time that the Americas became free and independent. It was nurtured by statesmen, thinkers and plain people for decades. Gradually it brought together the Pan American group of governments; today it has fused the thinking of the peoples, and the desires of their responsible representatives toward a common objective.

The result of this thinking has been to shape a typically American institution. This is the Pan American group, which works in open conference, by open agreement. We hold our conferences not as a result of wars, but as the result of our will to peace.

Elsewhere in the world, to hold conferences such as ours, which meet every five years, it is necessary to fight a major war, until exhaustion or defeat at length brings governments together to reconstruct their shattered fabrics.

Greeting a conference at Buenos Aires in 1936, I took occasion to say:

“The madness of a great war in another part of the world would affect us and threaten our good in a hundred ways. And the economic collapse of any nation or nations must of necessity harm our own prosperity. Can we, the republics of the New World, help the Old World to avert the catastrophe which impends? Yes, I am confident that we can.”

I still have that confidence. There is no fatality which forces the Old World towards new catastrophe. Men are not prisoners of fate, but only prisoners of their own minds. They have within themselves the power to become free at any moment.

Only a few days ago the head of a great nation referred to his country as a “prisoner” of the Mediterranean. A little later, another chief of state, on learning that a neighbor country had agreed to defend the independence of another neighbor, characterized that agreement as a “threat,” and an “encirclement.” Yet there is no such thing as encircling, or threatening, or imprisoning any peaceful nation by other peaceful

nations. We have reason to know this in our own experience.

For instance, on the occasion of a visit to the neighboring Dominion of Canada last summer, I stated that the United States would join in defending Canada were she ever attacked from overseas. Again at Lima, in December, the twenty-one American nations joined in a declaration that they would coordinate their common efforts to defend the integrity of their institutions from any attack direct or indirect.

At Buenos Aires, in 1936, all of us agreed that in the event of any war or threat of war on this continent we would consult together to remove or obviate that threat. Yet in no case did any American nation regard any of these understandings as making any one of them a “prisoner,” or as “encircling” any American country, or as a threat of any sort or kind.

Measures of this kind taken in this hemisphere are taken as guarantees, not of war but of peace, for the simple reason that no nation on this hemisphere has any will to aggression, or any desire to establish dominance or mastery. Equally, because we are interdependent, and because we know it, no American nation seeks to deny any neighbor access to the economic and other resources which it must have to live in prosperity.

In these circumstances dreams of conquest appear to us as ridiculous as they are criminal. Pledges designed to prevent aggression, accompanied by the open doors of trade and intercourse, and bound together by common will to cooperate peacefully, make warfare between us as outworn and useless as the weapons of the Stone Age. We may proudly boast that we have begun to realize in Pan American relations what civilization in intercourse between countries really means.

If that process can be successful here, is it too much to hope that a similar intellectual and spiritual process may succeed elsewhere? Do we really have to assume that nations can find no better methods of realizing their destinies than those which were used by the Huns and Vandals fifteen hundred years ago?

The American peace which we celebrate today has no quality of weakness in it. We are prepared to maintain it, and to defend it to the fullest extent of our strength, matching force to force if any attempt is made to subvert our institutions, or to impair the independence of any one of our group.

Should the method of attack be that of economic pressure, I pledge that my own country will also give economic support, so that no American nation need surrender any fraction of its sovereign free-

dom to maintain its economic welfare. This is the spirit and intent of the Declaration of Lima: the solidarity of the continent.

The American family of nations may also rightfully claim, now, to speak to the rest of the world. We have an interest, wider than that of the mere defense of our sea-ringed continent. We know now that the development of the next generation will so narrow the oceans separating us from the Old World, that our customs and our actions are necessarily involved with hers.

Beyond question, within a scant few years air fleets will cross the ocean as easily as today they cross the closed European seas. Economic functioning of the world becomes increasingly a unit; no interruption of it anywhere can fail, in the future, to disrupt economic life everywhere.

The past generation in Pan American matters was concerned with constructing the principles and the mechanisms through which this hemisphere would work together. But the next generation will be concerned with the methods by which the New World can live together with the Old.

The issue is really whether our civilization is to be dragged into the tragic vortex of unending militarism punctuated by periodic wars, or whether we shall be able to maintain the ideal of peace, individuality and civilization as the fabric of our lives. We have the right to say that there shall not be an organization of world affairs which permits us no choice but to turn our countries into barracks, unless we are to be vassals of some conquering empire.

The truest defense of the peace of our hemisphere must always lie in the hope that our sister nations beyond the seas will break the bonds of the ideas which constrain them toward perpetual warfare. By example we can at least show them the possibility. We, too, have a stake in world affairs.

Our will to peace can be as powerful as our will to mutual defense; it can command greater loyalty, devotion and discipline than that enlisted elsewhere for temporary conquest or equally futile glory. It will have its voice in determining the order of world affairs.

This is the living message which the New World can send to the Old. It can be light opening on dark waters. It shows the path of peace.

In the evening a concert of music from American countries was given at the Union. The United States Navy Band Orchestra, Lieut. Charles Benter conducting, was assisted by Bernardo Segall, Brazilian pianist, who was enthusiastically received here

as in New York, and Natalia Garland de Cook, Peruvian soprano, who had come from Lima especially for the occasion. During the intermission the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States and Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, made the following brief remarks which, like the concert, were broadcast throughout the continent:

The day we are celebrating is an appropriate time for all of us to pay tribute to some of the ideas and ideals which have entered deeply into the thought and feeling of the American peoples. Pan American Day in the world as it is now constituted stands for an affirmation by half the world that it will not accept an international order based on force-politics, or the abrogation of underlying principles of justice, tolerance, and law.

The Pan American structure is a standing pledge that international relationships in the New World do not rest on preponderance of arms or balance of power. We have weighed those possibilities and have discarded them, seeking bases of greater strength, and more lasting values. The independent nations of the Western Hemisphere have more than once been the object of direct and indirect aggression from beyond the continent. In every contest since the era of liberation, they have driven the attacking forces from our shores; and the Pan American will is that similar forces shall never re-enter.

Pan Americanism has thoroughly established itself and has become a method of life among its constituent nations. Today we are called upon to determine whether its conception of peaceful adjustment can be maintained in the face of a world outside, some parts of which boldly insist that there can be no valid relations save those based on force. Involved in this is the question whether our relationships with certain parts of the world can be maintained upon the ethical and equitable conceptions which we have adopted for ourselves.

I think that developments in inter-American relations during recent years indicate the answer. The American Republics have in clear and unmistakable terms expressed their determination to assure peace on this continent and to defend and maintain the independence and institutions of our peoples against any menace. None can say that we offer to the world an example of international adjustment maintained by reason because we have not at our command the more brutal weap-

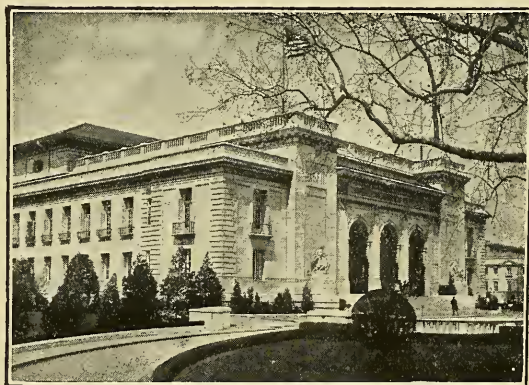
ons; nor can any harbor the illusion that our insistence upon international justice is an appeal which springs from weakness. The devotion of this hemisphere is to an organization grounded on juridical equality of all nations, on respect for the sovereignty of each, and on understanding so complete that every question can be dealt with by reason and peaceful discussion. This is the free choice of all of us; a true choice, since other alternatives are open.

This choice in international relations gives the Western Hemisphere something definite and distinct to say to the world, peculiarly at this time of stress.

More than a century ago the idea was born on this hemisphere of a community of nations. This has been the consistent Pan American ideal. As in the pursuit of every ideal there have been lapses and mistakes; but the strength of the conception has invariably reasserted itself. As between us, neighbor nations, it has proved stronger than the weight of arms. Under its guidance the Pan American family has slowly but surely forged the principles of its own entity and being. Through many conferences and through years of day-to-day effort they at length took concrete form at Montevideo, at Buenos Aires, and at Lima.

Today that same group, with equal confidence, faces a disturbed world. In the past year they formulated their attitude in two historic instruments. One, the Declaration of Lima, sets forth the unchangeable purpose of the New World to guarantee and maintain the security of the hemisphere and the institutions of its free peoples. The other, the Declaration of American Principles, offers to all nations an invitation to join in cooperative effort, whereby the advantages of world order under principles of justice and free opportunity may be made available to all, leaving no reason for war. The principle of these instruments is not that of a closed alliance. Rather it is an offer of peaceful cooperation to each and all.

It is fitting that the celebration of this day should be marked, not by demonstrations of armed men but by the closer, more intimate and more significant manifestations of the culture of the hemisphere: the common understanding of the real values of civilization, and of an appreciation of the accomplishments of the spirit and mind. These, rather than the development of the longest range cannon or the most destructive bomb, represent the aim of Pan American culture; their flowering is the goal of Pan American organization and desire.



Elements of the Theater in Colombian Folkways

DANIEL SAMPER ORTEGA

FEW ARE THE COUNTRIES of Latin America that have preserved to this day, as in Colombia, the ancient customs brought by the Spaniards to the New World early in the XVIth century, chiefly from the Basque Provinces and Andalusia.

The Basque settlers chose the region that today bears the name of Antioquia. These rugged mountains, rich in gold and recalcitrant to farming, appealed especially to the natives of the Cantabrian coast, who have for centuries wrested a precarious livelihood from the mines.

The Andalusians, on the other hand, settled the valleys of Colombia and the great plain on which lies Bogotá, where life was agreeable to the temperament of these easy-going people. They adapted themselves without difficulty to the cultivation of a land very similar to that from which they had come.

If we can give credence to Francisco de P. Rendón, one of the most popular and well known novelists of Antioquia, there still survives among the customs brought by the Basques to the Antioquian mountains that of chanting dirges during a wake. The friends and neighbors of the deceased congregate at the house where he lies, and resting on the pack-saddles and other gear or squatting in corners, find places as best they can in the tight quarters of the humble home. The oldest woman present then leads them in telling the "Rosary of the Good Death," after which she starts singing a dirge, each verse of which ends with a refrain in which the rest of the

company joins. These songs are in the nature of supplications for the eternal rest of the soul of the deceased, or may refer to the vanity of all things of this earth. On some occasions the men and women sing alternating parts. This custom is no longer to be found in the cities, but only in remote country districts, and as the railroads and highways cover ever greater portions of Antioquia year by year, it is fast disappearing.

In the city of Popayán, the capital of the Department of Cauca, we find vestiges of theatricality in religious observances, particularly during the Holy Week processions. They resemble very closely the famous processions of Seville. The statues of favorite saints are brought out of the churches and borne through the streets on platforms conducted by pious men, who wear long, hooded robes, with holes pierced in front of the eyes. The right to accompany these images is handed down from father to son, and is so greatly prized that men have risked their lives rather than forfeit it. Such was the case of General Sarría, who had fled to the mountains near Popayán to escape a death sentence but, disguised in his Nazarene robe, claimed his post in the Good Friday procession, at the risk of being discovered and shot.

In the same city, miracle plays are still held in front of the most important church on Epiphany. The players in the sacred drama are chosen in advance so that they may rehearse, and on the day of the celebration are attended with great pomp by a

splendid mounted escort to the church, where they enact for the crowds a play showing the adoration of the Magi and shepherds at the birth of the infant Jesus, and the cruelty of Herod in ordering the slaughter of the innocents. As far as I know, the miracle play has not survived in so classical a form in any other city of America or Spain.

In the mountain regions there could be seen as late as the end of the past century the custom of fashioning in the form of Judas, the traitorous apostle, a dummy loaded with gunpowder.¹ On the Saturday before Easter Sunday, after mass, this dummy was hanged from the top of the church tower, and slowly lowered in a shower of sparks, amid the applause of the multitude gathered below, who thus appeased their Christian wrath against the man who betrayed Jesus on the Mount of Olives.

The writer was born in time to witness another interesting use of the theater to express religious sentiment. It was the custom in Bogotá, the capital of the republic, to set up in each dwelling a nativity scene at Christmas time.² A small stage was built with brush and moss from the woods, sand to represent the desert and pieces of glass for rivers and lakes; in the center was erected a stable in which rested the tiny figures of the infant Jesus, Mary and Joseph, accompanied by an ox and a mule. Often the group was supplemented by miscellaneous toys belonging to the children of the household, which resulted in the most extraordinary combinations and anachronisms: railroads crossing the desert in the first year of the Christian era; figures of the three Magi mounted on horses not so high as the stuffed birds placed near

them; ducks larger than horses and New York skyscrapers smaller than the dolls dressed as shepherds.

The Espina family achieved renown with its Nativity scene, in which the figurines moved as they do in marionette shows, and represented episodes in which religious allusions were unconcernedly mixed with references to political events of the day and to prominent citizens of the locality. These shows invariably ended with the appearance of the devil, who carried off with him all the nuns and monks, to the great amusement of the spectators.

In the mountain districts it is also customary to erect in the central square of each town on Corpus Christi day a scene representing the Garden of Eden. Two half-clad children take the parts of Adam and Eve, and the scene is rounded out by the animals of the neighborhood, tied to stakes near the greenery planted in the square on the previous night.

The use of the family theater to celebrate the birthday of the head of the house achieved great popularity in Colombia. The rehearsals for the play served as an excuse for lively social gatherings, which generally ended with a supper and dance. On the day of the show, a stage was erected in the largest patio of the house; on it the actors risked life and limb, since it was composed of tables and boxes of the most varied sizes and shapes. Sheets on which doors and windows had been roughly sketched were used in lieu of scenery. Since the audience was usually enormous, because everyone knows every one else in small places, the patio was covered with large awnings supplied for the occasion by the troops quartered in the town. The guests brought their own seats; besides the entire family, the servants came, and since it was customary to have as many as six or even ten in each home, there was a large crowd.

¹ This custom is common in Mexico, where the dummies are sometimes made in the likeness of political figures. It also exists in other countries.—EDITOR.

² This custom also persists in many countries, although not with the universality mentioned by the author.—EDITOR.

It is interesting to note that the regular theater in Colombia, as a public spectacle, had its beginning at Bogotá in the plays given by one of these family theater groups in the home of Don Lorenzo María Lleras. Although there are accounts of public performances in colonial days and in early

years of the republic, these were entirely sporadic and occasional in character. This new phase of the theater in Colombia cannot be described here for lack of space but may be treated in another article.

(Translated by Clarabel H. Wait, Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union.)

The Feminist Movement in Haiti

MADELEINE G. SYLVAIN

President, Women's League for Social Action, Haiti

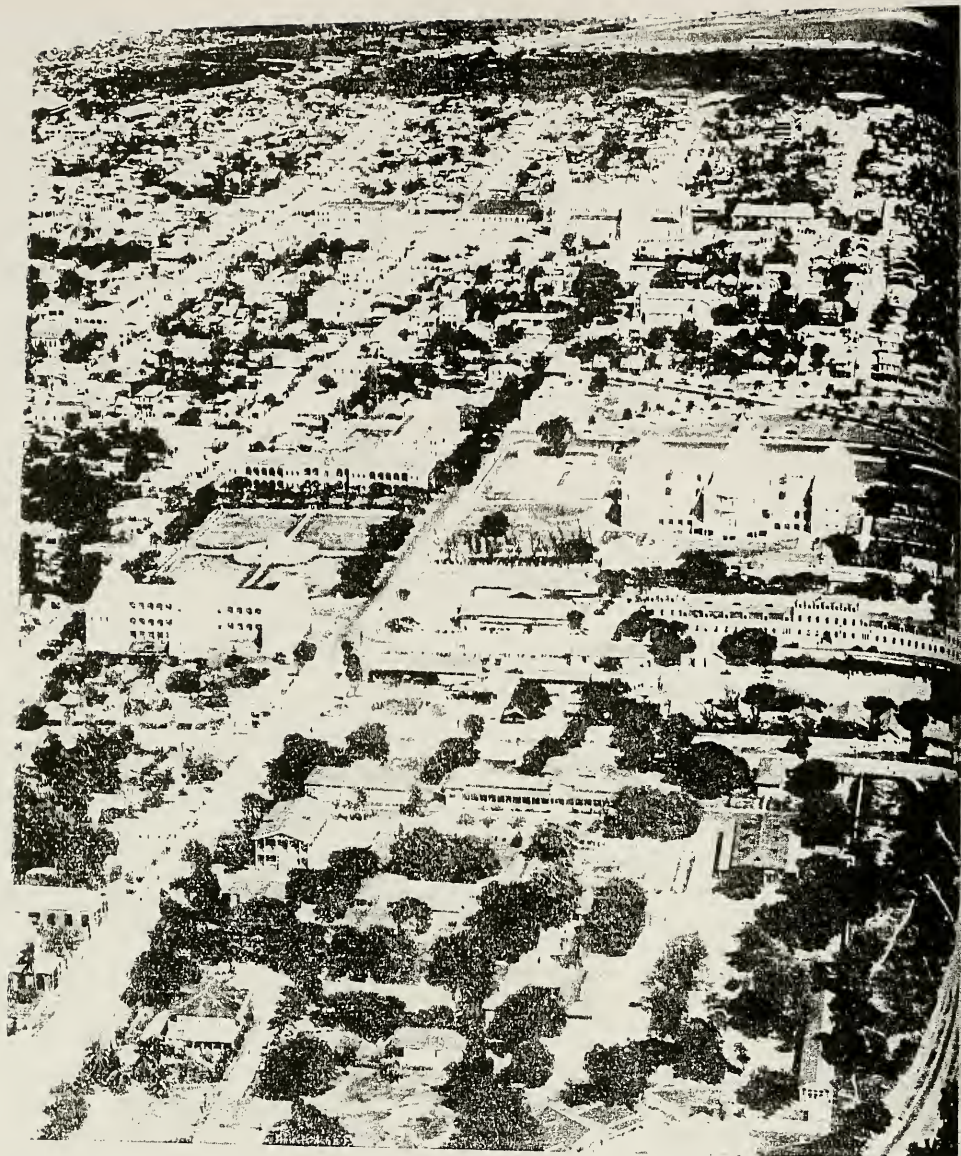
THE FEMINIST MOVEMENT is a recent development in Haiti, a country of Latin tradition, where the status of women is still governed by the Napoleonic Code. Haitian women enjoy no political rights; after they are married, they lose their nationality, their name, and the right to dispose freely of their persons and property. However, since custom corrects to a certain extent the strictness of the law, Haitian women play an important domestic and economic role and, content with "ruling the rulers", were long satisfied with their lot.

Nevertheless, about 1915 the new influences of greater social consciousness, more education, and economic emancipation began to be perceptible, like echoes of the rights demanded in this age. As Haitian women became better educated, they realized the new role that women were playing in the world, claimed their share of responsibility, and demonstrated greater understanding of their duties to the nation and to society. They demanded admittance to the university, interested themselves in social work as well as sports, invaded business offices. In spite of all that,

they did not yet consider fighting for their rights. In 1931, a bill introduced by Senator Hudicourt, granting votes to women, was received with indifference by both men and women.

The feminist movement however, began to permeate every-day life, and was not slow in asserting itself. The Women's League for Social Action (*La Ligue Féminine d'Action Sociale*), founded in February 1934, gave it expression by uniting Haitian women for the first time in a common movement for improving their status.

The founders of the League believed that feminism should be more than a movement for political emancipation—it should be a movement for the improvement of society. It was the latter kind of feminism they introduced. They wanted to bring together everyone interested in the subject, to help find solutions for problems of private charity, health, and the protection of women and children and, in order to reach that goal, raise the moral, physical, and intellectual level of women in all classes of society. This is the foremost aim of the association: the social and intellectual development of women.



PORT-AU-PRINCE

The capital of Haiti is the seat of the headquarters of the Women's League for Social Action.

The League has from the first tried to overcome indifference, to spread its ideas, to combat prejudice against feminism. Before the League was established, feminism was considered in Haiti, by those who gave little thought to it, as a somewhat revolutionary movement, like Bolshevism and Communism. The League has made feminism a living reality. Friends or foes, all who read, all who think, are now interested in the question and discuss it. Indifference has been overcome, the first and most difficult obstacle has been surmounted. The case is now before the jury of public opinion.

The League is directed by an executive committee of 10 members, assisted by committees on social action, on legislation, on international cooperation, and on peace. The President of Haiti has consented to be honorary president of the association.

There are four branches (in Port-de-Paix, Saint-Marc, Cayes, and Jacmel) functioning under the same constitution that governs the Central Committee, with which they work in close collaboration, while remaining independent in matters concerning their programs for immediate action and giving their first attention to meeting local needs. The branches in Port-de-Paix, Saint-Marc and Cayes decided to follow the example of the Central Committee and establish evening classes for working women, but in Jacmel the branch created a public welfare center: the *Obole du Pauvre*, a shelter for the needy of both sexes. In Port-de-Paix the establishment of a milk station for babies is being planned. In Cayes, the social welfare committee has a home nursing service, and the establishment of a school for child care is under consideration.

The association is extending its influence through representatives in other important towns.

The activities of the League have been

preeminently educational—the establishment of evening classes for working women in many thickly populated districts. Teaching its pupils to read, the League gives elementary instruction in home child care, civics, and ethics. Practical courses in domestic science will be given as soon as finances permit. From time to time educational motion pictures are shown.

Through the League's desire to extend the benefits of its courses to whole districts, new associations have recently been organized. They are open to all women in the neighborhood, and their purpose is to develop the spirit of cooperation and initiative among these working women, to provide wholesome entertainment, and help women attain a broader intellectual, social, and economic outlook. These associations, designed to do away with barriers between classes and spread the League's ideas, are still in the process of organization, many interesting projects being under discussion, such as the establishment of savings banks, cooperatives, and employment offices. With the aid of League members, living conditions have been improved and informal parties arranged. The management of these evening classes is vested in the committee on social action, which is also in charge of studies and of visits to thickly populated neighborhoods and to public and private welfare institutions.

Haitian women have always taken interest in good works, but they had not before had a general outlook to serve as background for the solution of social problems. They have been busy with work, and have not thought of preventive measures. They have never attacked the sources of trouble, the chief factors leading to degeneration: alcoholism, irregular unions, etc. The League, however, tried to transcend isolated activities



Courtesy of Madeleine Sylvain

A COMMITTEE OF THE HAITIAN WOMEN'S LEAGUE FOR SOCIAL ACTION

First row, left to right: Mlle. Poitevien, assistant secretary; Mlle. Sylvain, president of the League and author of this article; Mme. Garoute, vice president; Mlle. Laroche, of the League's review, "*La Voix des Femmes*"; and Mlle. Gordon, assistant treasurer; second row, left to right: Mme. Valcin, manager of "*La Voix des Femmes*"; Mlle. Turiau, member of the council; Mlle. Hudicourt, treasurer; Mlle. Perrin, editor of "*La Voix des Femmes*"; Mlle. Justin, member of the council; and Mlle. Bellegarde, secretary.

consider the social problem as a whole. It began by visiting and making known existing institutions, and has indicated, here and there, gaps to be filled and coordination to be effected. Its efforts have often been crowned with success, thanks either to private or public initiative or to its own participation in starting new activities. Thus the League has approved or cooperated in the founding of such social welfare and preventive organizations as the Child Care Society and the *Obole du Pauvre*.

To carry out its educational work, the League has organized lecture courses on education, social work, history, and other subjects. Two libraries have been opened for members, in Port-au-Prince and Port-de-Paix.

From its founding, the League has been active in demanding important changes in education for women: the introduction of home economics courses in all schools for girls to make their education more practical, a well-rounded physical education program, and the organization of secondary instruction for girls. (In Haiti the

government gives girls only a grammar school education.) The League has been gratified to witness the success of the first two points in its program: the new education law of February 1938 made physical education compulsory in both boys' and girls' schools, and home economics courses were added to the primary school curriculum last October. Although the government has not yet established a *lycée* (high school) for girls, many private schools have admitted them to secondary courses, thus enabling them to continue their studies and facilitating their admittance to the university.

The League has also planned to protect women in another field, that of law. Realizing that the League cannot wield any influence in social matters if women themselves cannot, to some extent, participate in the passing of laws on health, social welfare, and the status of women, formed on January 7, 1935, a legislative committee to examine bills pertaining to women and children and to urge changes in the legal status of women.

On March 3, 1936, Senator St.-Aude introduced a law dealing with the disposition of the wages of married women. (In Haiti the husband, as administrator of all the property of the marriage partnership, still has the power to dispose of the wife's wages without her authorization.) This law was reported upon favorably by the committee charged with examining it, but was not voted upon by the National Assembly. Undiscouraged, and realizing that a legislative campaign started in 1936 is unlikely to succeed in so short a time, the committee is continuing its work and preparing a general bill amending the provisions of the Civil Code concerning the status of women.

To spread the League's ideas and keep in contact with the members living in the provinces, an organ of some kind seemed

indispensable. Therefore in 1935 a monthly magazine called *La Voix des Femmes* (The Voice of Women) was founded to serve as a bond between all Haitian women, so that they might become better acquainted with each other and work together to improve their condition.

This modest publication, founded by women and for women, without capital, subsidy, or a single salaried employee, has been able to support itself from the beginning and to continue the fight for feminism. The make-up of the magazine and the social ideas expressed in its pages won for it a silver medal at the Paris Exposition in 1937.

The League does not limit its activities to national affairs; it tries to interest its members in the condition of women throughout the world and in the main trends of the times.



Courtesy of Madeleine Sylvain

ON THE WAY TO MARKET

The Haitian Women's League for Social Service is especially interested in improving the lot of rural women.



Courtesy of Madeleine Sylvain

THE SQUARE, PÉTIONVILLE

Because of its situation in the mountains, Pétionville has a delightful climate and is popular as a resort in warm weather.

Pan American Day has been celebrated for three years in Haiti, at the suggestion of the League.

At the request of the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, a peace section has been established within the Haitian League for Social Action to cooperate closely with the former and promote peace and good will nationally as well as internationally. This section was recently visited by Miss Heloise Brainerd, Chairman of the National Committee for the Americas for the Women's International League.

Radio programs and newspapers keep Haitian women in touch with their sisters in other lands, especially with those of the American continent.

The members of the League and representatives of its branches hold a biennial

congress, where a report on the work accomplished during the preceding two years is presented and the program for the future discussed. At the congress held last October it was decided that in order to intensify its activities, the League would increase the number of its study groups and add to them specialists and public-spirited persons interested in the subjects under investigation. The informative meetings and visits to institutions and other centers of social work would be continued.

The following are some of the concrete matters for which an attempt is being made to find practical and prompt solutions through the work of the League's sections:

Recreation: Survey as to the use of leisure time in Haiti, especially by young people. Leisure time occupations (Boy Scouts

physical culture, clubs, libraries, vacation camps).

Social service: Enlistment, organization, and direction of public-spirited citizens. Public welfare work in Haiti. Consideration of a plan to coordinate private and public welfare work. Neglected children; child labor.

Legislation: A bill to amend the Civil Code in its provisions relating to the status of women. Social legislation in Haiti.

Education: Reorganization of night courses. Study of adult education. Project to change course of study for girls.

Peace: Study of a plan to coordinate efforts for peace looking toward a women's organization for maintaining domestic peace and collaboration with peace groups in other countries, especially in the Antilles with particular consideration of the problems of emigrant Haitian workers.

This program may seem ambitious, but the members of the League have faith in

the potentialities of Haitian women, believing that they can work together in a friendly spirit, sustained by devotion to their ideal, to solve the problems nearest their hearts as mothers and apostles of a broader life.

As may be seen from this brief account, although the League cannot boast of brilliant achievements, it is preparing the soil little by little, and its influence is being felt in many fields; although it cannot be the only source of social improvements, it is certainly one factor therein. If its accomplishments are not as great as its members might wish, the results are none the less appreciable. The mere fact that Haitian women are making a united effort offers hope for the future. Feminism is before the country, and now has supporters in many circles, including the Assembly. A slow task has been begun, and though progress is still hardly perceptible, by persevering the goal will soon be reached.



Courtesy of Madeleine Sylvain

SPORTS AT A RURAL SCHOOL

Through the activities of the Women's League for Social Action, sports have been made compulsory for girls as well as for boys.

Indian Life in Stamps of the Pan American Countries

BEATRICE NEWHALL

Assistant Editor, BULLETIN of the Pan American Union

THE INDIAN was the first American. It is not surprising, therefore, that in stamps of twelve American nations—Bolivia, Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, and the United States—the Indian or some phase of Indian life is depicted.

America's feeling toward its Indian heritage has taken different forms in different periods—appreciation, disdain, sentimentality. The current attitude is one of respect. Whether the Indian composes the major part of the population or not, the governments of America are trying to see that he is properly incorporated in the body politic, that he is neither oppressed nor pampered. The First Inter-American Conference on Indian Life will meet sometime during 1940, at La Paz, Bolivia, to discuss principles, problems, methods, programs.

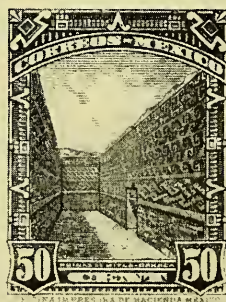
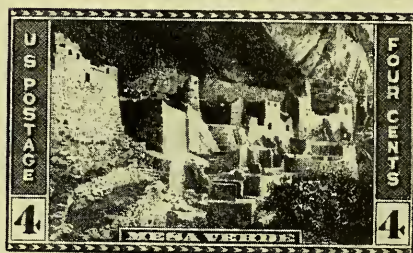
Monuments, legends, and customs of the pre-Columbian cultures are shown in stamps. The first civilization thus shown, starting from the north, is the Pueblo, whose cliff-dwellings in Mesa Verde National Park (southwestern Colorado) are among the most imposing early remains in the United States. The construction of the so-called Palace, shown on a stamp¹ of the National Parks issue of 1934, lasted 200 years, from 1073 to 1237; the dates have been established by studying the

growth rings of the beams found in the ruins. The popular name Palace is a misnomer, for the structure was really a community house, capable of sheltering 500 persons.

The Aztec civilization centered about what is now Mexico City. The legend of the founding of the city by the Aztecs is perpetuated in the device of the Mexican coat of arms, shown on many stamps during the last 40 years: an eagle perched on a cactus plant, with a serpent in its beak. The familiar story is that the leader of a nomadic tribe from the north was told in a dream that he and his followers should build themselves a city at a spot to be identified by the eagle, cactus, and serpent, and this they did on the site of the present capital.

The broad central plateau known as the Valley of Mexico was the site of an ancient ceremonial city, built by the Toltecs, the predecessors of the Aztecs. Its remains at San Juan Teotihuacán are known to all travelers to Mexico. In 1923 the Pyramid of the Sun appeared on a Mexican stamp, and eleven years later the Pyramids of the Sun and of the Moon were both shown on an airmail stamp, bearing the legend, *Pirámides del Sol y de la Luna*. At the same site is another familiar temple, that of Quetzalcoatl, whose decorative motif of a plumed serpent head, the symbol of the god, is perhaps the most familiar feature of Teotihuacán. Between the heads are grotesque faces, the significance of which is undetermined, although earlier author-

¹ Three stamps—*Father Las Casas* (Dominican Republic) and *Indian hunting buffalo and Mesa Verde* (United States)—are reproduced through the courtesy of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.



MONUMENTS OF ANCIENT AMERICAN PEOPLES

Upper: Maya stelæ from Guatemala (left) and Honduras (right). Center: Left, a huaco of the Chavín type, from the Peruvian Andes, and right, Pueblo cliff dwellings at Mesa Verde, Colorado. Lower: left, the Toltec Pyramids of the Sun and the Moon at San Juan Teotihuacán, and right, a hall in one of the Mixtec-Zapotec ruins at Mitla, both in Mexico.

ities believed it to represent the Toltec rain god Tlaloc. This latter motif appears on one of the 1934-35 airmail stamp series, beneath the legend, *Teotihuacán, Mexico; dragón del Templo de Quetzalcoatl* (Teotihuacán, Mexico; dragon from the Temple of Quetzalcoatl).

The most famous Aztec sculpture is unquestionably the Calendar Stone, now in the National Museum in Mexico City. In 1934 it was included in the design of the airmail series issued to raise funds for the National University. The stone, probably the most widely known of all pre-Columbian monuments, contains the elements of the chronological system and of the history and religion of the Aztecs.

A slightly earlier sculpture, the Sacrificial Stone, or Stone of Tizoc (a war chief who ruled in the latter half of the 15th century), appears on a stamp of another 1934 series, with the legend, *Piedra de los Sacrificios*. The top of the drum-shaped stone was carved to represent a simplified version of the calendar stone, and the circular edge, which is shown on the stamp, contained groups of conqueror and captive. This stone is said by archaeologists to have served as the altar for human sacrifices.

Another carving, entitled *El hombre pájaro azteca* (The Aztec bird man), was featured on a 1934 Mexican air-mail stamp.

South of Mexico, in what is now the State of Oaxaca, was the center of the Zapotec-Mixtec culture, among whose very individual monuments are the ruins at Mitla. Another 1934 stamp depicts an inner hall of one of the buildings, showing the distinctive relief-mosaic of the walls, described as *Ruinas de Mitla, Oaxaca*.

The Maya civilization has left monuments in Yucatan and other parts of southern Mexico and in northern Central America; several of these have been portrayed on stamps.

The Maya remains in Yucatan have been widely publicized because of the intensive exploration and restoration carried out there in recent years. Three Mexican stamps issued in 1924 by the State of Yucatan under a revolutionary government show, respectively, the statue of a Maya god, ruins in the jungle, and a restored monument. One of the stamps issued by Mexico in 1938 to commemorate the 16th International City Planning and Housing Congress shows a bird's-eye view of the famous buildings at Chichén Itzá—the colonnaded Temple of the Warriors in the foreground, the so-called Castillo (Castle) in the background.

The center of an older Maya culture was at Palenque, in what is now the State of Chiapas. From the Temple of the Cross a series of three panels known as the Cross of Palenque was taken to the National Museum in Mexico City; this sculpture appears on a 1934 Mexican stamp, which shows, not very clearly, the central sections of the design, a cross flanked by two standing figures in profile. The stamp bears the legend *Cruz del Palenque*.

Of the Maya remains in Guatemala, those of Quiriguá have been most studied and are at present the most accessible, since they lie near the main railroad from the Caribbean to the capital. Excavations to date have brought to light 12 great stelae and four mammoth boulders, all carved with beautiful and intricate designs. These monuments are dated, showing that they were erected about 5 years apart, from the end of the 7th through the 8th century A. D., according to Morley's interpretation. In 1921 the government of Guatemala issued a stamp entitled *Monolito de Quiriguá* showing the most famous of the stelae (E) as it was found in the jungle, settled to one side. In 1931 another stela (D, north face) was pictured, flanked by the somewhat incongruous inscription, in



DISCOVERY AND COLONIZATION IN THE NEW WORLD

Left: Columbus presents natives at the Spanish Court (United States); statue of Columbus in Panama. Right: Father Las Casas defending the Indians from exploitation; Father Anchieta, "the Apostle of Brazil," with some of his flock.

Spanish and English, "Guatemala produces the best coffee in the world," and with the inscription *Monolito Quiriguá* below.

In Honduras, near the Guatemalan border, are the important remains of the Maya city of Copán, recently made a national monument. This extensive city was already in ruins when the Spaniards arrived in America, and has been known to the world in general for only about a hundred years. Thanks to the airplane, modern travelers may visit the site easily and comfortably from either Tegucigalpa, Honduras, or Guatemala City. A Hon-

duran stamp of the 1927-8 issue shows a ruined stela in its jungle setting, and two others, issued in 1931 and 1939, portray a stela with a fine figure carving. The legend on these three stamps reads *Ruinas de Copán*. Another of the 1939 issue shows a Maya temple over the legend *Templo Maya; Parque La Concordia*. Concordia Park in Tegucigalpa, which was dedicated on March 15, 1939, President Carías' birthday, contains many reproductions of Maya monuments, including the temple depicted on the stamp.

The chief South American civilization at the time of the Conquest was the Inca

Empire, which extended roughly from what is now Ecuador down into Chile and Argentina. Although the term "Inca" is now generally used to describe a whole civilization, the word means "chief" or "leader", and was the title used by the ruler of the realm. One such monarch, seated in regal majesty, may be seen on a 1934 Peruvian stamp over the words *El Inca*. The Inca was reputedly a descendant of the sun, and he and his people were therefore sun worshippers. To give the Peruvian unit of currency a name that would have historical significance for the country, the government decreed in 1863 that it would be called a *sol* (sun), and in several stamps of the 1874-79 issue a beaming sun constitutes the main design.

The Inca Empire was the heir or incorporator of earlier cultures, some remains of which still stand. Three of the pre-Columbian cultures are indicated on as many Peruvian stamps issued in 1932, when the republic celebrated the fourth centenary of the Conquest. The Chimú kingdom in northern coastal Peru centered about the city of Chan Chan, near the present port of Trujillo; it was made part of the Inca Empire about a century before the arrival of the Spaniards. The Chimú stamp shows two stylized figures apparently in combat. The Nazca rule, also coastal, centered about a valley some 250 miles south of Lima. The Nazcas, a people of an advanced and ancient culture, were conquered by the Incas in the 13th century. Recent excavations on the peninsula of Paracas, near the city of Pisco (174 miles south of Lima), have brought to light one of the finest American fabrics in existence, the Paracas Textile, now in the collection of Sr. Rafael Larco Herrera at Hacienda Chichín, near Trujillo. According to experts, it belongs to the Early Nazca period, and has been tentatively dated at about 500 A. D. The design on the

"Parakas" stamp of this issue was inspired by motifs from textiles found on this site. A stamp with a stylized figure of majesty, the "Inka", completes the set. (The use of *k* for *c* in native words, such as Paracas and Inca, is a spelling adopted by some archaeologists.)

The Nazca civilization was also featured on a 1935 stamp commemorating the fourth centenary of the founding of the city of Ica. The symbolic figure is entitled *El dios supremo de los Nazcas* (The supreme god of the Nazcas).

A pre-Inca civilization of the highlands was that centering about Tiahuanacu, near Lake Titicaca, in Bolivia. Its cyclopean remains have been the wonder of travelers for over four hundred years. A Bolivian stamp of the 1916-17 issue shows one of the monoliths still standing there, the statue popularly known as "The Friar" or "The Bishop."

A striking sheet issued by Bolivia in 1927 was composed of stamps reproducing designs from the eastern face of the monolithic gateway at Tiahuanaco, so arranged that the whole sheet represents the central portions of the carved panel, with the so-called "Weeping God" (probably Viracocha, the Creator-God) in the center.

Another pre-Inca civilization, which has left behind notable examples of ceramics and sculpture, is the Chavín culture, which takes its name from the town of Chavín on the Eastern slopes of the Andes, in the Province of Ancash. The most celebrated carving is the Raimondi monolith, nearly seven feet high, now in the National Museum in Lima. It is a low relief depicting, in highly stylized fashion, a symbolic figure with a head-dress that occupies three-fifths of the design; the carving was reproduced on a 1938 stamp over the legend *Estela de Chavín; Diós jaguar, personificación de lluvia, trueno, y rayo* (Stela from Chavín; Jaguar god, the personification of rain, thunder,

and lightning). In the same series is a carving described on the stamp as follows: *Idolo del templo de Chavín; representación del puma* (Idol from the temple at Chavín; representation of a puma). A third stamp in the series illustrates the pottery of this early people; under the beautifully proportioned jar is the legend *Huaco de estilo Chavín con representación de felinos en relieve* (Huaco in Chavín style with figures of felines in relief).

Pre-Columbian Indian motives have also been used on borders or for other decorative purposes on many stamps, notably those of Bolivia, Mexico, and Peru. In some of the stamps of the Mexican air-mail issue of 1934, for example, the result of combining motifs unmistakably Aztec in origin is extremely effective, although no special monuments are reproduced.

The voyages of Columbus first made Europe aware of the lands and peoples of the great western hemisphere. On his return from his first voyage, Columbus took Indians back with him to show to his sovereigns. On one of the stamps issued by the United States in 1893 in commemoration of the 400th anniversary of the discovery of America is the scene of their presentation at court. Indians figure incidentally on two other stamps of the same issue: On one, the central vignette of Columbus sighting land is flanked by an Indian mother and child on one side, and by a warrior on the other; on the second, the landing of Columbus, an Indian may be seen peering from behind a tree at the newcomers.

A postage-due stamp issued by Panama in 1915 depicts a statue to Columbus; beside the Discoverer an Indian is crouching, as if for protection.

Other early explorers were met by Indians, some friendly, some hostile. On one of the stamps issued by Brazil in 1932, to commemorate the fourth centenary of

colonization in Brazil at São Vicente (a town that is now a suburb of the modern coffee port of Santos), Martim Afonso de Souza and his companions are seen coming down a path from the shore to an Indian village, while caravels ride at anchor in the bay; the scene is entitled *Desembarque de Martim Afonso de Souza* (Landing of Martim Afonso de Souza).

Both discovery and changing modes of navigation are featured on the Hudson-Fulton stamp of the United States, issued in 1909. Commemorating the 300th anniversary of the discovery of the Hudson River and the invention of the steamboat by Robert Fulton, whose *Clermont* made a successful trip between New York and Albany in 1807, the stamp depicts Indians in their canoes, the *Half Moon*, Hudson's vessel, and the *Clermont*, with the Palisades that border the lower river as a background.

The early explorers found that the attitude of the Indians whom they met often meant the difference between the success or failure of an expedition and therefore did all they could to ensure friendly relations with the natives. This was particularly true in the exploration and settlement of the territory west of the Alleghany Mountains in what is now the United States.

In 1634 Jean Nicolet, a companion of the French explorer Champlain, was commissioned to try to find a passage to the western ocean. He sailed through the Great Lakes and on the shores of Green Bay (an arm of Lake Michigan) was welcomed by Winnebago Indians who had a village there. Nicolet is believed to be the first white man to set foot in what is now Wisconsin. That State celebrated its tercentenary in 1934, and a special stamp was issued in its honor, showing the reception of Nicolet by the Indians.

Another French explorer of the United



ANCIENT CIVILIZATIONS OF THE ANDES

Peru commemorated three pre-Columbian civilizations in this series of stamps. Upper, the Inca, which prevailed when Pizarro arrived in 1532; center, Paracas, part of the Early Nazca culture of southern Peru; and lower, Chimú, of northern Peru, incorporated in the Inca Empire only about a century before the arrival of the Spaniards.

States middle west was Marquette, a Jesuit missionary and explorer, who with Joliet rediscovered the Mississippi River in 1673. The two sailed down the Wisconsin and Mississippi Rivers as far as the latter's confluence with the Arkansas, within 700 miles of the sea, and then turned back because they did not want to venture into Spanish territory. A stamp of the 1898 Trans-Mississippi "Omaha" Exposition series shows Marquette being directed by the natives.

The natives did not always take kindly to European appropriation of their lands, and in many countries there are legends of the bravery with which Indian princes or chieftains defended their own. Many of these heroes, as well as friendly Indians and heroes of pre-conquest times, have been portrayed on stamps, which will be described according to country, starting from the north.

One of the favorite Indian heroines in the United States is the Princess Pocahontas. While the story of her saving the life of Captain John Smith has been proven without foundation, it is one of the legends of early colonial days that will not die. She married John Rolfe, a companion of Captain Smith, and died in England, but her descendants went back to Virginia and many distinguished Americans are proud to claim her as an ancestor. She is portrayed on a 1907 stamp clad in the European costume of her period.

Cuauhtémoc, also known in English by such variants as Guatemucin and Quauh-temotzin, succeeded the Aztec king Moteczuma just after the Spaniards under Cortés invaded the country, and was ruler of Mexico City when the Conquistador finally captured the city. He led the brave resistance to the small but determined band of Spaniards, and after he had been overthrown and taken captive, heroically endured torture. When Cortés undertook

his expedition to Honduras, he decided that as a matter of policy it would be wise to have the ex-ruler and other important prisoners accompany him. At some unidentified spot in southern Mexico, Cuauh-témoc and two of his fellow-prisoners were hanged on the charge of conspiring against their captors. The statue of the Aztec monarch that stands on the Paseo de la Reforma in Mexico City has been shown on several Mexican stamps, in the issues of 1895, 1915, and 1923.

The Spaniards, under the leadership of Pedro de Alvarado, subdued what is now Guatemala with the greatest difficulty, for the Quiché Indians fought stubbornly against the invaders. One of the bravest Quiché chieftains was Tecum Uman, who was finally defeated and slain in a fierce battle that took place on a wide plain near the present city of Quezaltenango. In 1933 Guatemala issued a stamp featuring the Bandera de la Raza (flag of the race) (a white banner with three Maltese crosses symbolic of the three caravels of Columbus) flanked by the Discoverer on one side and Tecum Uman on the other.

Atlacatl was an Indian chieftain, king of Atecuán (modern Cuscatlán) who lived in what is now El Salvador. When Pedro de Alvarado arrived in that region, Atlacatl welcomed him and showered him with gifts. The Spaniards, however, took Atlacatl prisoner, and in the consequent uprising of the natives, the Spaniards suffered great losses and had to retreat, but Atlacatl was killed. His figure appears on a stamp issued by El Salvador in 1924-25.

A Honduran chieftain, Lempira, was unfriendly, and successfully resisted the Spanish invaders. He was finally besieged in an impregnable position at Cerquín by the Spaniards under Cáceres. After six months of unsuccessful negotiations, the Spaniards resorted to treachery.



FRIEND AND FOE OF THE FIRST WHITE MEN

Upper: Lempira, a Honduran chieftain who successfully defended his land against the Spaniards until his death. Center, Pocahontas, daughter of Powhatan, a Virginia chief. Lower, Urraca, who harried the Spanish forces at Panama for nine years.

A last parley was held at dusk, and as the Indian leader again refused to consider surrender, a marksman hidden in the shadows shot him down. Honduras has named its monetary unit after the heroic Indian, and honored him on two stamps issued in 1927-28 and 1939, respectively.

Nicarao, a powerful Nicaraguan cacique of the 16th century, is pictured on stamps issued in 1937 by that country on October 12, generally known in Spain and Latin America as "El Día de le Raza" (The Day of the Race). When Gil González de Ávila penetrated Central America, he sent an embassy to Nicarao, who received the Spanish leader and gave him gold. The Indian allowed himself to be converted to Christianity, and was baptized with 35,000 of his followers. The region over which this chieftain held sway was called Nicaragua, after him, by the Spaniards.

Diriangén was another Nicaraguan cacique of that period whose portrait is included on stamps of the same issue. He also greeted Gil González de Ávila with kindness and with gifts, which the Spaniards accepted. But in reply to their offer of baptism, Diriangén requested three days for consideration, and at the end of that period replied by attacking the invading forces. The Spaniards, having been warned by a disaffected native, were not taken by surprise, and in the ensuing conflicts, gradually gained the upper hand. The later history of Diriangén is not known.

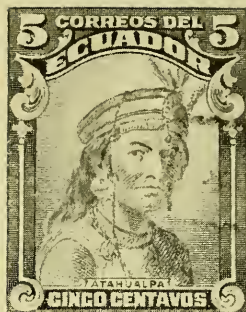
After the discovery of the Pacific and consequent exploration in the rich lands of the western coast of South America, the Isthmus of Panama swarmed with Spaniards, to the displeasure of the original inhabitants. Urraca, an Indian chief of the first half of the 16th century, lived in the region of Burica (now Buruca, Costa Rica), where there was gold in abundance. He successfully attacked several expeditions from Panama, but was captured by

trickery. Although loaded with chains, he managed to escape, and for nine years more harried the Spaniards. Then, abandoned by his followers, he retired to the mountains, and the warfare ceased.

Manco Capac, the founder of the Inca dynasty, ruled sometime in the 11th century. According to legend, he first appeared on Lake Titicaca, and proclaimed himself to the people as a child of the sun. By uniting scattered tribes and instructing them in husbandry and other civilized practices, he was able, by his genius as an organizer, to lay the foundations for one of the great civilizations of the world. Two pictures of him appear on Peruvian stamps, issued in 1896 and 1899-1900, and in 1931-32 respectively.

Atahualpa was a 16th century Inca, the last of the descendents of Manco Capac. He was the son of a Quito princess and the Inca Huaina-Capac, who added the Quito kingdom to the Inca empire and who, on his death, divided his realm between his two sons. War broke out between the half-brothers, Atahualpa of Quito and Huáscar of Cuzco. When Pizarro arrived, Huáscar had been defeated by his brother and taken prisoner, and Atahualpa ruled from Cuzco to Quito. In a battle with the Conquistador, however, the Inca fell into the hands of the Spaniards. History records that Atahualpa filled a room with gold, as a ransom, but instead of being freed, he was kept prisoner on trumped-up charges and finally garrotted on August 29, 1533. Atahualpa's portrait may be seen on a 1937 stamp of Ecuador, and his funeral was the subject of two Peruvian stamps issued in 1917-18 and 1935, respectively, entitled *Funerales de Atahualpa*.

Huáscar, the half-brother of Atahualpa, inherited the southern and major portion of the Inca realm and was crowned in



SIXTEENTH CENTURY INDIANS

Right: Tecum Uman, a Guatemalan leader who fought the invasion of the Spaniards, shares a stamp with Columbus; Cuauhtémoc, ruler of Mexico, was taken prisoner by Cortés and eventually killed; Tibiriçá, a friendly Brazilian Indian, is shown with his son-in-law Ramalho, a Portuguese exile. Left: The Inca Atahualpa was the son of Huaina-Capac and a Quito princess; he was taken prisoner and executed by the Spaniards, who nevertheless gave him an imposing funeral; Atlacatl welcomed the Spaniards when they arrived in what is now El Salvador.

Cuzco, the ancient capital, about the year 1529. Overthrown and imprisoned by Atahualpa, he was killed after the arrival of the Spaniards, probably at his brother's orders, to forestall any joint attempt by his followers and the invaders to restore him to the throne. A Peruvian stamp issued in 1934 is entitled *Coronacion de Huáscar* (Coronation of Huáscar).

The one east coast Indian honored on a stamp is Tibiriçá, a chieftain who lived on the plateau of the present State of São Paulo, Brazil. When the Indians dwelling in the vicinity of São Vicente Bay saw that Martin Afonso de Souza was preparing to establish a settlement there, they began to show signs of hostility. They were calmed, however, by the opportune intervention of Tibiriçá; he arrived at the coast accompanied by his son-in-law João Ramalho, a Portuguese exile who had settled down among the Indians and adopted their manner of living. One of the 1932 São Vicente stamps therefore fittingly pictures Ramalho and Tibiriçá.

The conquered Indians unquestionably suffered at the hands of the invader, throughout the continent. But they also had friends among their new masters, the most famous of whom was Fray Bartolomé de las Casas. Las Casas was the son of a Spaniard who had accompanied Columbus on his second voyage, and went himself to America as a conquistador in 1502, settling in the island of Hispaniola, now occupied by Haiti and the Dominican Republic. When the first Dominican missionaries arrived in 1510, he served as interpreter when they preached to the Indians. Kindly by nature, he had always treated well the Indians that were included in the estates granted him, and tried to persuade others to do the same. Finding that personal suasion was of no avail, he visited Spain several times, and endeavored to make the

government protect the natives by decree. On one of those visits, in 1523, he joined the Dominican order, and returned to the New World as a missionary. Finally, in 1542, the New Laws of the Indies were ratified by Carlos V; these laws, which incorporated the principles for which Las Casas had fought, forbade the exploitation of the Indians, but the landowners in America protested so violently and disregarded them so openly that they were soon repealed. Las Casas, after crossing the Atlantic 14 times, died in Spain in 1566, at the age of 92. He has been honored on a stamp of the Dominican Republic (1899-1900), which shows him standing between conquistadors and Indians; on one issued by Mexico (1933), with an Indian clutching his gown for protection; and on two of the Nicaraguan series of the October 12, 1937 issue.

Another friend of the Indians was the Spanish Jesuit José de Anchieta, who did missionary work in what is now Argentina, Uruguay, and Brazil. His achievements in propagating the faith earned him the title "Apostle of Brazil", but in addition to converting the natives, he labored earnestly to secure their material welfare. A Brazilian stamp issued in 1934 shows him in a clearing of the jungle, surrounded by his faithful flock.

Stamps of many different countries give us an idea of the life and customs of Indians of long ago and now. One of the features of native civilization that was noticed by the Spaniards in both Mexico and Peru was the system of communication, whereby relay runners transmitted messages and perishable commodities with remarkable rapidity from one part of the kingdom to another. Mexico in 1934 issued a special delivery stamp featuring such a messenger, running with a scroll in his hand across the Valley of Mexico, with the Pyramid of the Sun in the background; in a 1936 stamp



INDIAN LIFE AND CUSTOMS

Upper: Indian maidens of the United States and El Salvador. Center: an Indian hunting buffalo on the plains (United States) and an Indian *balsa* on Lake Titicaca (Bolivia). Lower: mother and child (Mexico), and a messenger of the Incas (Peru).



INDIANS IN AMERICA

Left: Schools for Indians in Guatemala and Bolivia. Right: two Mexican stamps, the upper showing archaeological motives and the lower an Eagle Knight of the Aztecs.

Peru showed an Inca runner with the pipes of Pan (still used in the Andes) in his hand, and the legend "*El Chasqui*", *correo de los Incas* ("The Chasqui", post of the Incas).

Besides stamps of various countries depicting temples and idols of pre-Columbian peoples, two stamps issued by Mexico in 1934 also show aspects of religious practices. In one an Indian is making an offering to the gods, in the other he is apparently watching the sacred flame.

An idea of what Indians looked like in different parts of the continent may also be obtained in stamps. Two United States stamps, both issued in 1930, show the type of Indians found by the early colonists: one on

the seal of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, the other depicted with a southern colonial governor. A 1938 Bolivian stamp shows an Indian standing high above Lake Titicaca holding a lighted torch above his head, a condor with outstretched wings at his feet. The head of an Indian wearing the feathered headdress used on ceremonial occasions by certain tribes appears on two stamps, one issued by the United States in 1922-26, the other by Mexico in 1934. The United States stamp depicts over the words "American Indian" a Brule Sioux chief named Hollow Horn Bear.

The head of an Indian woman with feathers in her hair was pictured on an

1878 Guatemalan stamp. A North American Indian woman, clad in deerskin skirt and moccasins, was the subject of attractive United States newspaper stamps issued in 1875 and 1895. A very recent Salvadorean stamp shows an Indian woman drawing water from a lily-filled, reed-bordered pool; it has the legend *Indígena en la fuente* (Native woman at the spring).

Aztec warriors appeared in combat in costumes symbolic of fierce animals and birds, as described by Prescott and depicted by Diego de Rivera in his paintings for the Palace of Cortés, at Cuernavaca, Mexico. Two Mexican air-mail stamps of the 1934-37 issue show different versions of the eagle warrior; one bears the legend "Caballero águila" (Eagle knight), and shows the head of a warrior under the curved eagle beak of his headdress looking out toward the mountains, with an eagle in the foreground and cactus at the side; the other has as a detail a helmeted head clearly derived from a piece of sculpture, known as the Knight of the Eagle, in the National Museum.

American Indians were famous archers. Two Mexican designs, one on a regular stamp of the 1934 series, the other on a 1934 special delivery stamp issued in 1934 and 1937, show the Indian with his bow and arrow. This weapon was used for obtaining food as well as for fighting; a United States stamp of 1898 shows an Indian hunting buffalo by this means.

Stamps show, too, that the native Americans were skilled artists and craftsmen. Besides the evidences of their handicraft described earlier in the article, there are several stamps in the 1934 National University issue of Mexico showing them at their work. The designs include a potter with his great vessel, an Aztec sculptor, and an artisan sharpening a tool by primitive means.

Coming into more recent times, we find

the transition from primitive to modern civilization not so far away. General Anthony Wayne, a veteran of the American Revolution, was instrumental in opening the northwest of the United States to civilization. Peaceful negotiations failed, but the defeat of the Indians at the Battle of Fallen Timbers in 1794 was followed by the Treaty of Greenville, August 3, 1795, which brought about the desired result. A United States stamp issued to commemorate the Wayne Memorial Monument, unveiled on the 135th anniversary of the battle, reproduces the memorial group of that monument, General Wayne in the center with an Indian on the left and a frontiersman on the right. Another United States stamp, which commemorated in 1936 the centenary of the acquisition of the Oregon Territory, has the central map of the original Territory flanked on one side by pioneers with their covered wagon and on the other by an Indian spying upon their progress from a vantage point.

Modern Indians are shown watching an airplane in naive wonderment on a Mexican stamp of 1934-35. A woman bearing a heavy jug on her back is depicted on a 1934 Mexican stamp, over the legend *India Yalalteca* (Yalaltecan Indian woman), while a woman from Tehuantepec wears her typical costume, with its fluted white headdress, on a companion stamp.

Indians in the highlands of Peru still play the flute as they did in days of old, as a 1936 stamp of that country shows. The balsa, a sailboat built of rushes, is the native vessel in use on Lake Titicaca; it appears on a 1916-17 Bolivian stamp. A 1938 stamp from the same country shows a wide river in the jungle lowlands of eastern Bolivia on which a tented raft is being slowly poled, while overhead an airplane speeds on its way.

Typical of the work carried on to make

the Indian an integral part of national life is the scene on a Mexican stamp issued in 1938, on the 25th anniversary of the Guadalupe Plan (a circular issued on March 26, 1913, as the platform on which Carranza and his followers based their uprising against Huerta). Educational facilities are being increased throughout the continent. In 1902 Guatemala showed on a stamp its

fine school, labeled *Instituto de indígenas* (Institute for natives). Bolivia issued two stamps in 1938 testifying to the work of this kind being carried forward there; one shows two Indians gazing at a large open book on which *Escuelas indígenas* is printed, the other a school of the type built especially for Indian education, with the same legend.

Child Welfare in Latin America

KATHARINE F. LENROOT

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IDEAS cannot be confined within national boundaries. There can be no tariff barriers in the commerce of the spirit. Recognition of this truth inspired Bolívar to say: "Our society must be a society of sister nations"; and at the very moment when the final victory over Spain impended at the Battle of Ayacucho to call the first Pan American Congress. The close spiritual affinity between Bolívar and Washington was based upon their common faith in the power of ideas to transcend man-made boundaries and individual limitations.

The Liberator's hopes were pinned upon domestic peace, political freedom, and the rule of law in national and international affairs. Washington based his belief in the possibilities of representative institutions upon universal enlightenment, and dreamed of creating in his nation's capital centers of research and information that would "draw to a common center the fruits everywhere of education and experience, and spread them thence to the entire Nation." President Roosevelt, in his address at the opening of the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace,

December 1, 1936, described the faith of the Americas as arising "from a common hope and a common design given us by our fathers in differing form, but with a single aim—freedom and security of the individual, which has become the foundations of our peace." Later in his address the President said: "The faith of the Americas, therefore, lies in the spirit. The system, the sisterhood, of the Americas is impregnable so long as her nations maintain that spirit."

The conditions surrounding child life furnish the best test of the extent to which ideals of security and freedom for the growth of human personality are being realized in any given civilization. Julia C. Lathrop, first Chief of the United States Children's Bureau, called child welfare a "test of democracy." The first studies of the Bureau were directed toward establishing the relationship between infant mortality and such economic and social factors as income and housing. Where children are undernourished, poorly housed, illy clothed, not attending school, lacking in health protection, home-

less, or delinquent, one is certain of finding grave poverty, illiteracy, instability and insecurity of home life, and absence of well-developed organization for the advancement of health, the development of educational opportunity, or the protection of individuals who are without normal security in family or community.

In comparing the conditions surrounding child life in the several Latin American countries and in these countries and the United States, major differences in geographical situation, historical development, and racial composition must be borne in mind. Furthermore, in addition to mixture of races, there is mixture of nationalities.

Culturally, Latin American countries have been closely linked with Europe, especially France and Spain. It is still far more common for young people with means to study medicine, law or other subjects in Paris or Madrid than in North American centers, and it is Europe rather than the United States that has given leadership in establishing professional social-work training in Brazil, Chile and Peru. The building of the Panama Canal, the development of great continental air lines, and other influences are bringing Latin America and the United States into closer relationship, and there is important interchange among the Latin American countries. When the Chilean poet and educator, Gabriela Mistral, spoke recently in Washington she said, in discussing the countries lying to the south: "I say 'we', because as a teacher I am identified not only with Chilean life, but also with that of Mexico, Colombia, or Ecuador."

Problems of child health were not identified as such a hundred years ago. Although the oldest hospitals and orphanages in the western hemisphere were established in those sections which were

under Spanish and Portuguese rule, and charitable organizations founded over a century ago are still active in the great Latin American cities, the child-welfare movement in Latin America as late as 1930 was described as unspecialized for the most part. Provision for orphan and dependent children and of hospital care for the sick was part of the Catholic heritage in these countries, but until very recently, with few exceptions, the only form of child care was the congregate institution, with auxiliary placing of nursing infants in the homes of foster mothers who were wet nurses—a very necessary aspect of child care in countries where artificial feeding of babies was extremely hazardous because of the lack of a supply of clean milk. To foundling and orphan asylums babies might be admitted anonymously, no attempt being made to trace their parentage or preserve family ties. Large numbers of children were born out of wedlock, and since the Napoleonic Code was the basis of jurisprudence, investigation of paternity was forbidden in the absence of corrective legislation.

The countries of Latin America have shared in the health and social movements of the twentieth century, though their development has come somewhat later, in most instances, than in certain other countries, because of the comparatively sparse population of the Latin America republics, the relatively small amount of industrialization and urbanization in most countries, financial limitations, and the difficult problem of assimilation of populations of indigenous, European, African, and even Asiatic origin. In 1930, the report of the delegates of the United States to the Sixth Pan American Child Congress, held in Lima, Peru, contained the following statement with reference to Latin America:



THE GOVERNMENT SOCIAL SERVICE SCHOOL, SANTIAGO, CHILE

Founded in 1925, this school was the first of its kind in Latin America. It has had many successful graduates in different fields.

With certain notable exceptions such institutions as public health nursing service, family welfare and children's aid organizations, juvenile courts, centers of child study and child guidance, and training schools for social work, are still lacking or are in early stages of development. Illiteracy and infant mortality are high, though in some countries they are yielding rapidly to the determined campaigns that are being made against them; large numbers of children are born out of wedlock; the problems of pure water and milk supplies are still extremely grave in many sections; the day nursery

is the principal means of assisting mothers who must carry the double burden of support and care; and foundling asylums and orphanages still, for the most part, receive children with little or no investigation of the possibility of preventing the severing of family relationships.

The report went on to comment, however, that many of these conditions exist also, in greater or less degree, in large areas of the United States. It described the leadership that was being given to

child welfare work and the breadth of world experience upon which Latin America was drawing, as follows:

Leadership in child welfare in Latin America has come mainly from physicians, many of whom have a broad social viewpoint, realize the close interrelationship of health and social welfare, and are careful students of developments in Europe and the United States. The earnestness, courage and ability of the pioneer professional women, and the devotion and generosity of the many women who, without remuneration, dedicate their time and ability to the service of women and children, are eloquent of the day when men and women together and on an equal footing will labor for racial betterment and social progress. That these leaders are not alone in their conception of the importance of safeguarding human interests is indicated by examples of excellent social and labor legislation which are on the statute books of many countries. The experience of France, Belgium, Germany, England, and the United States has been widely drawn upon, cultural relationships with certain European countries being especially close. In some instances—for example, the promotion of indigenous culture in Mexico and Peru, the Mexican Penal Code and the Mexican juvenile court system—original experiments of great interest are being made.

Undoubtedly the considerable impetus given to the development of child welfare work in Latin American countries in the latter part of the second decade of the twentieth century and in later decades was due in an important degree to the stimulation of Pan American Child Congresses. The first such Congress was held in Buenos Aires in 1916; the second in Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1919; the third in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in 1922; the fourth in Santiago, Chile, in 1924; the fifth in Habana, Cuba, in 1927; the sixth in Lima, Peru, in 1930; the seventh in Mexico City in 1935; and the eighth will meet in San José, Costa Rica, next October. The United States has been actively interested in all these Conferences and has had relatively large official delegations at the last four. The Conferences discuss a wide range of subjects, including medical care of

children, child hygiene, education, legislation, and social welfare. The resolutions adopted at each Congress are sources of information concerning the crystallizing objectives and practices of the New World with reference to the opportunities that should be available to children and youth.

In national and international affairs periods of crisis stimulate general awareness of need and energize the mobilization of social forces for meeting need. In the decade following the world war were formulated declarations of the fundamental rights of childhood such as had never before been put into concise form. Most universal of them all is the Declaration of Geneva, adopted in 1923 by the Assembly of the League of Nations. A notable Pan American Code of the Rights of Childhood was adopted by the First International Congress of Social Economy, held in Buenos Aires in 1924, and the Third Pan American Scientific Congress, held in Lima later in the same year. Its author, the late Dr. Sherwell, said: "There is no anguish, no misery, no progress, no happiness experienced by one of the American peoples which is not the common lot of all. It is to the recognition of this fact that we owe the Pan American idea." National declarations of the rights of childhood have been adopted in Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Uruguay, and Venezuela. These do not constitute legislation, but set forth objectives that should govern social action. In these countries, however, the children's codes have been enacted into law, and such codes are under consideration in Chile and Mexico. The enactment of children's codes in every country was recommended by the Seventh Pan American Child Congress. National Constitutions adopted in Peru, Cuba, Honduras, Uruguay, Brazil, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Bolivia in the period from 1933 to 1939 express the duty of the State toward children and



Courtesy of Dr. Guillermo Belt

THE CHILDREN'S HOSPITAL, HABANA

prescribe various child-welfare measures.

The chief characteristics of the various declarations of child rights is their emphasis on *every* child. Like public health, the child protection movement progresses from cure to prevention and from prevention to emphasis on maximum development of the physical and mental possibilities of each child who comes into the world. In discussing the objectives of the first Venezuelan Child Congress, held in February, 1938, the Governor of the Federal District of Venezuela quoted the ancient saying: "No basta evitar la muerte; es necesario aprender a vivir." (It is not enough to avoid death; it is necessary to learn to live.)

We have, then, widely accepted international pronouncements of the right of every child to a home; the love and care of his parents; shelter, food, and clothing; health protection; schooling; recreation; preparation for vocational life; and religious and spiritual development. The *idea* of child protection, as the responsibility of

the State as well as of individual parents which through the centuries has had so large a share in softening the harshness of human selfishness and social conflict, has taken more definite form and waits for human ingenuity to devise the methods by which it may be more effectively realized.

Periodic Congresses for discussion of problems and methods need the continuing service of an international agency to serve as a center of information, planning, and study. A center established for this purpose, though with very limited financial resources, is the Instituto Internacional Americano de Protección a la Infancia, with headquarters in Montevideo, Uruguay. The late Dr. Luis Morquio, a distinguished Uruguayan pediatrician who throughout a long life contributed greatly to the development of child welfare work through national and international action, was the first director of the Institute. A valuable quarterly bulletin is published. The United States is a member of the

Institute and makes a small annual contribution to its support.

Generous in interest, helpful counsel, and practical cooperation in Pan American child welfare work is the Pan American Union, which serves as the executive agency for the International Conferences of American States and for many specialized conferences, and carries on continuing work in many fields. The Pan American Sanitary Bureau, with headquarters in the Pan American Union building, and Pan American Sanitary Conferences organized by the Bureau, have given valuable impetus to the development of public health work in Latin America, which owes much to assistance given over a long period by the United States Public Health Service. Pan American Red Cross Conferences have also been helpful. There is urgent need, however, for more systematic and continuous service in the broad field of child welfare. A resolution adopted on Christmas Eve by the Eighth International Conference of American States, held in Lima last December, reads as follows:

WHEREAS:

The excellent programs of social and child welfare of the different countries could be stimulated greatly by the establishment of a central informative and coordinating agency serving the institutions, organizations and individuals devoting themselves to such activities in the Americas,

The Eighth International Conference of American States

RECOMMENDS:

That the Governing Board of the Pan American Union study the feasibility of creating a social and child welfare information center ¹ to promote and develop scientific social welfare programs, encourage cooperation between the social service schools of the various American countries and assist in the organization of Pan American social conferences or congresses.

International conferences and continuing study and promotion by international

agencies achieve results only through the action of individual countries in strengthening and developing their systems on the basis of generally accepted standards and methods proved by experience to be most effective. Among countries as among local communities within countries, differing conditions and stages of development require great variation in the application of general principles.

Legislation establishing national official agencies for the coordination of child welfare and the administration of child welfare services has been adopted in recent years in Costa Rica, Ecuador, Peru, Uruguay, Nicaragua, Argentina, Mexico, Bo-

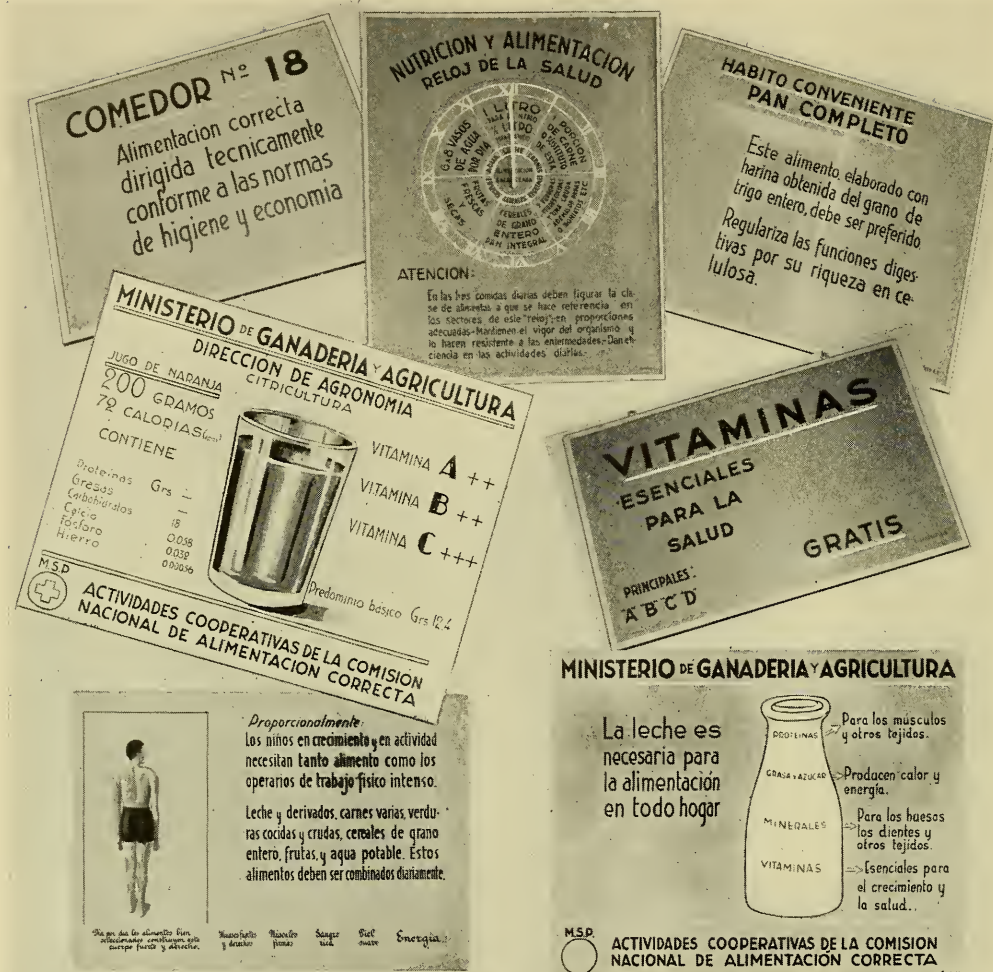


Courtesy of Dr. Guillermo Belt

CUBANS TAKE ADVANTAGE OF CHILD HEALTH OPPORTUNITIES

At the modern Children's Hospital in Habana there is always a long line waiting for entrance to the clinics.

¹ The Board voted at its meeting on April 5, 1939, to establish such a center at the Pan American Union as soon as funds are available.—EDITOR.



Courtesy of Justo F. González

POSTERS IN A GOVERNMENT RESTAURANT, MONTEVIDEO

A number of restaurants are maintained by the Uruguayan Government to teach proper dietary habits to the public. In these restaurants whole wheat bread, butter and lettuce are given free with each meal and posters urge the consumption of foods rich in vitamins.

livia, Brazil, and Venezuela. Plans for similar coordination are being made in other countries.

Since 1919, social insurance legislation has been adopted in Chile, Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, Peru, and Uruguay and is under discussion in other countries. Chile has the most com-

prehensive law, enacted in 1924—11 years before the passage of the Social Security Act in the United States. The insurance is compulsory for a large majority of workers in both public and private enterprise. Benefits in Chile include medical care and cash payments to the insured person and in some cases medical care for his family.

Women insured in their own right receive in addition medical care during the prenatal, confinement, and postnatal periods, half of their wages for four weeks, and after that a nursing benefit of one-fourth of their wages for not longer than 8 months. In addition, under 1938 legislation, physical examinations are given to insured persons, and when necessary rest with full pay is granted for the purpose of preventing illness.

The social-insurance laws of Ecuador and Peru are somewhat similar to the law of Chile. In Argentina and Cuba, in the absence of sickness-insurance laws, compulsory maternity insurance of employed women has been on the statute books for several years. The insured women receive medical attendance before, during, and after childbirth, and cash payments for the time of their absence from work.

In Latin American countries there is a very lively and practical interest in nutrition, of which many aspects could be cited.

In the field of international action particular mention should be made of the Tenth Pan American Sanitary Conference held in Bogotá, Colombia in 1938. At that Conference the committee on nutrition of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau presented a valuable report on the progress of the science of nutrition in the various countries and proposed new aims for the future.

Low-priced restaurants maintained by the Government have been established in Chile, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela.

Adoption laws have been liberalized in a number of countries, including Chile, Costa Rica, and Uruguay, in recent years. Heretofore the laws in some Latin American countries permitted adoption only if the adopting parent was at least 50 years old and had no children of his own. There were also other restrictions intended

to safeguard the legitimate family. Labor departments, school-attendance services, health and social services, and professional training of health and social workers have been established in various Latin American countries. In the last decade national conferences on child welfare have been held in Costa Rica in 1931, in Argentina in 1932 and 1933, in Brazil in 1933, and in Venezuela in 1938. National conferences on infant health or health of school children have been held since 1933 in Argentina, Chile, Peru, and Uruguay. Mexico held its first national pediatric congress in September 1938. Especially in the last few years, the several countries have drawn heavily upon experience in Latin America as well as in Europe and the United States when inaugurating or strengthening child welfare services, and experienced workers from one country have been brought to other countries to assist in developing new activities requiring trained leadership.

Summaries of child welfare developments in certain countries may serve to illustrate the types of activities which are being taken and the progress being made. The material is taken largely from reports and articles by Mrs. Anna Kalet Smith of the staff of the United States Children's Bureau, and from first-hand observations by the writer and other members of the Bureau staff, especially Mrs. Elisabeth Shirley Enochs:

Argentina

In Argentina, as in the majority of Latin American countries, most of the child-health work is done by the Government. The Bureau of Maternal and Child Welfare, established in the Department of Health in 1936, has responsibility for studying problems of child health; educating the public in maternal and child health; and supervising health centers,



A COSTA RICAN NUTRITION CENTER

Children requiring a special diet supervised by a physician are brought to this center.

maternity homes, day nurseries, lunch rooms, kindergartens, vacation camps, dental clinics, and traveling health centers and clinics in rural districts. The program includes health supervision of the newborn, social services by trained workers, and training of physicians, public health nurses, and other child-welfare workers in the best methods of child care.

In November 1938, the National Council of Education of Argentina decided to extend school health work to the entire country through the employment of physicians, dentists, and health visitors in every province and territory; they were to be chiefly concerned with preventive health service. Argentina was the first Latin American country to establish a juvenile court and related measures for the care of delinquent children, following in general the experience in the United States. The first juvenile court legislation was enacted in 1919. A National Commission appointed some twelve years ago made a

comprehensive study and published reports concerning the care of delinquent children in America and Europe, and a national agency under the Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction is continually engaged in prompting higher standards of service in this field. Two schools for the training of health visitors and one school of social service supported by the Government are in operation.

Brazil

In this country, unlike most Latin American countries, private rather than public initiative is responsible for the introduction of modern child-health work on a national scale. A child welfare institute was established in 1901, and maintains, with small public subsidies but chiefly by private contributions, prenatal centers, maternity homes, child-health centers, children's hospitals, day nurseries, kindergartens, elementary and trade schools, vacation camps, and other child-welfare

institutions. Early in 1937 the institute had 27 branches throughout Brazil.

The founder of this organization, Dr. Moncorvo Filho, has been interested in the work of the United States Children's Bureau throughout its history. In 1919 he founded the Departamento da Creança do Brasil (Children's Bureau of Brazil) for the study and organization of child welfare work throughout the country. This agency organized the first national child-welfare congress, in 1922. It maintains an information service on child-welfare, and has published many bulletins, including a comprehensive history of child welfare in Brazil from the year 1500 to 1922. In 1937 a Federal Bureau of Maternal and Child Welfare was established in the Department of Health, with a comprehensive program of investigation, development of child welfare services in the various States, and administration of a broad range of activities. Assistance in the development of public health nursing and general health work has been given by the Rockefeller Foundation. A juvenile court was established in Rio de Janeiro in 1923, and a national Council on Assistance to and Protection of Minors is studying problems of juvenile delinquency and neglect and cooperating with juvenile courts.

During the past year a representative of maternal and child health work in Brazil made an extensive first-hand study of the work of the United States Children's Bureau and has published a comprehensive report of its activities for use in Brazil.

Chile

Notable developments in child health and child welfare work have taken place in Chile since 1924, when the Fourth Pan American Child Congress met in Santiago. Public child health work is carried on by the Division of Maternal and Child Welfare of the National Department of Health,

and private child health activities by the Consejo de Defensa del Niño and the Patronato Nacional de la Infancia. The social insurance services have been referred to. The first school of social service in Latin America was founded at Santiago in 1925, and a Catholic School of Social Service is also maintained. A juvenile court system has been developed.

Cuba

Child health and child welfare work has been relatively well advanced in Cuba for a number of years, though there are great and difficult problems of poverty, dependency, and health on the Island. In the report of the United States delegates to the Fifth Pan American Child Congress, held in Habana in 1927, it was noted that the Government of Cuba, a country with a population of about 3,500,000, was spending nearly \$5,500,000 a year on its Department of Health and Charity, which has Cabinet status. Foster home care of dependent children has been developed more extensively than in most Latin American countries, with the exception of Uruguay. Cuba was the first American nation to establish a child welfare division as a branch of the National Government.

Ecuador

The newly enacted children's code went into effect in August 1938. A school of social service was established in the same year. An attempt is being made to extend the social insurance system to include maternity insurance. A children's bureau carries on various types of child welfare service, and there is keen interest in all matters pertaining to children.

Mexico

In 1921 the first national conference on child welfare was held in Mexico City. In the following year the Federal Depart-



A MEXICAN CHILD HEALTH CENTER

Mexico employs about one thousand persons in prenatal clinics, maternity homes, clinics for pre-school children, day nurseries, kindergartens and orphanages.

ment of Health organized the first Baby Week held in Mexico, and later established child health centers in Mexico City and many other places. Federal child health and child welfare work was transferred in 1937 to the newly established Bureau of Social Aid to Children (Departamento de Asistencia Social Infantil), which is part of the Secretaría de Asistencia Publica. The functions of this new Bureau include the organization and development by the Federal Government of welfare work for mothers and for children under the age of 6 years; supervision of preschool education and maternal and child-welfare work carried on by States, municipalities, and private individuals and organizations, and establishment of centers for preschool education. The work of the Bureau has been divided among four offices: (1) Division of private cooperation and social action, which has charge of special studies of local and general problems, organization of new services, inspection of institutions and other agencies, and

social case work; (2) division of medical service in the Federal District, which has charge of clinics, maternity homes, day nurseries, orphanages, medical social service, etc.; (3) division of medical service in the States and Territories of the Republic; and (4) division of preschool education. By the fall of 1938 the staff included about 1,000 persons employed in prenatal clinics, maternity homes, clinics for preschool children, day nurseries, kindergartens, and orphanages. Expenses are shared by the Federal Government, which pays the salaries of the workers; the States, which furnish buildings; and private contributions. A volunteer organization, Asociación Nacional de Asistencia Infantil, has been organized to cooperate with the public Bureau. The association includes a number of volunteer committees and a central board in the Federal District, and local committees in towns and villages throughout the country. Mothers' clubs have been organized throughout the country. Mexico has a modern juvenile

court system, the courts being presided over by boards which include in their membership a lawyer, a psychiatrist, and a teacher. Much has been done in recent years in developing and improving public education, especially in rural areas.

Panama and Central America

Panama has perhaps the best training school for nurses of any Central American or Caribbean country, and graduates are in great demand in other countries. Rural sanitary units, whose staffs will include public health nurses, are in process of development. There is realization of the need for trained social service and health personnel.

Costa Rica, where the next Pan American Child Congress will be held, has one of the best public health programs of any Central American country. Various phases of child welfare work, for example the establishment of juvenile courts in Guatemala, are reported in other countries.

Peru

Child welfare work in Peru on a national scale dates from the Constitution of 1920, which directed the Government to undertake the protection of childhood. The Junta de Defensa de la Infancia (Child Welfare Council) was established as an executive branch of the Government in 1922, and sponsored a national child welfare conference whose recommendations were incorporated in a decree. A national child welfare institute was established in 1925 and the Council of 1922 was replaced in 1930 by a Child Welfare Commission under the Department of Health. The institute is the investigating and administrative agency of the Commission.

All child welfare work in Peru has the active interest and support of the wife of the President, Señora Francisca Benavides de Benavides. A school of social service

under the Ministry of Public Health, Labor and Social Welfare was opened in 1938.

Uruguay

Uruguay is the seat of the Instituto Internacional Americano de Protección a la Infancia, an organization conceived by the late Dr. Luis Morquio and receiving its chief support from Uruguay. This little country, frequently called the Belgium of South America, for a time had a National Ministry of Child Welfare, the only such children's department of this rank in the western hemisphere. A children's code went into effect in 1934, and a National Child Welfare Council, with the status of a bureau of the National Department of Health, is responsible for child-health and child-welfare work throughout the Nation. Branches are organized in every province and in certain cities and towns. Foster home care of dependent children has been developed extensively, far more than in other Latin American countries. The National Commission on Nutrition carries on active and able work. Popular instruction in child health and many forms of child welfare service are carried on by the Uruguayan Child Welfare Association, a private organization which has been functioning since 1924. A privately supported school of social service was established in 1937, and plans are made for the establishment of a Government school.

Venezuela

The Government of Venezuela, private physicians, the Red Cross, and several woman's organizations are developing centers for prenatal care and instruction, maternity hospitals and homes, registration of midwives, children's hospitals, milk stations and health centers, school health service, and vacation camps. They are concerned with the problems of profes-

sional preparation of physicians, nurses, health visitors, and social workers. They have brought 16 trained nurses from Puerto Rico to assist in the development of nursing services. The head of the school of nurses of the Children's Hospital is a Puerto Rican, as is the head of a special course in social work under the tuberculosis dispensaries; she graduated from the Catholic School of Social Service in Washington. This action of Venezuela illustrates how Puerto Rico is beginning to serve as an interpreter or transformer of United States methods of health and social services applied in Puerto Rico to Latin American conditions.

Most of the child welfare work of Venezuela has been developed in the past three or four years. Great impetus was given to services for the health and protection of children by the first National Child Congress, held in Caracas in February, 1938. Half of each day was given over to the sessions of the Congress, the other half to visits to hospitals and institutions, some still under construction. Recommendations adopted at the Congress have since been incorporated by law into a children's code.

As in other Latin American countries, ancient methods of care of dependent and neglected children are beginning to give way in Venezuela to modern insistence on provision for assisting the child in his own home, if possible; supplementary aids such as day nurseries; and small homes for children in place of large institutions. The Association of Venezuelan Women and the Red Cross have established health

services, maternity homes, a home for children, an observation home for juvenile delinquents, and other types of child welfare work. The difficulties of the task of developing a nation-wide child welfare program can be realized when one recalls that Venezuela is a country of three million people, white, Negro, Indian, and of mixed blood, scattered over an area as large as the 14 States, from Maine to Florida, bordering on the Atlantic, with West Virginia added. The country is rich in natural resources—oil, minerals, vast plains for agriculture and grazing, but much of the plain region is infested with malaria mosquitoes. Three-fourths of the population is rural and many are illiterate. In the last two years great efforts have been made to reorganize educational services and extend them to rural areas. In four years infant mortality in Caracas has been reduced from 150 to 99 deaths per 1,000 live births.

Developments in other countries which space does not permit describing even briefly also indicate great activity and interest in child welfare on the part of Government officials, physicians, educators, and women's organizations.

World peace and prosperity depend, ultimately, upon the health, intelligence, character, and social outlook of the world's citizens. These in turn depend upon the care, protection and training which the children of the world receive. Thus child welfare is a matter of international as well as national concern.

Heredia, Bard of Niagara

ON THE SEVENTH OF MAY 1939 Cuba was joined by the other American Republics, in accordance with a resolution of the Eighth Internacional Conference of American States, in commemorating the centenary of the death of her greatest poet, José María Heredia. He has a special interest for the United States because as a political exile he found refuge in this country, and on a visit to Niagara Falls in 1824 he wrote at the age of twenty-one the ode that is declared by Joseph Auslander still the finest poetic tribute to that great spectacle of nature. In the phrase of the Spanish critic Menéndez y Pelayo, it is a "true cataract of poetry." A translation published in 1827 in *The United States Review and Literary Gazette*, edited at the time by William Cullen Bryant and Charles Folsom, is sometimes credited to the former. While the Spanish poem is far more sonorous and some of the descriptions and figures lose their poetical vividness in the English version, the poet's approach to nature and his reflections are faithfully and often felicitously conveyed. The translation is as follows:¹

ODE TO NIAGARA

My lyre! Give me my lyre! My bosom finds
The glow of inspiration. Oh, how long
Have I been left in darkness, since this light
Last visited my brow! Niagara!
Thou with thy rushing waters dost restore
The heavenly gift that sorrow took away.
Tremendous torrent! for an instant hush
The terrors of thy voice, and cast aside
Those wide-involving shadows, that my eyes
May see the fearful beauty of thy face!

¹ For the Spanish texts of both the original and a later version the reader is referred to "The Odes of Bello, Olmedo and Heredia," with an introduction by Elijah Clarence Hills. *Hispanic Notes and Monographs, Peninsular Series III.* G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York and London, 1920.

I am not all unworthy of thy sight,
For from my very boyhood have I loved,
Shunning the meaner track of common minds,
To look on Nature in her loftier moods.
At the fierce rushing of the hurricane,
At the near bursting of the thunderbolt,
I have been touched with joy; and when the sea
Lashed by the wind hath rocked my bark, and
showed

Its yawning caves beneath me, I have loved
Its dangers and the wrath of elements.
But never yet the madness of the sea
Hath moved me as thy grandeur moves me now.
Thou flowest on in quiet, till thy waves
Grow broken 'midst the rocks; thy current then
Shoots onward like the irresistible course
Of Destiny. Ah, terribly they rage,—
The hoarse and rapid whirlpools there! My brain
Grows wild, my senses wander, as I gaze
Upon the hurrying waters, and my sight
Vainly would follow, as toward the verge
Sweeps the wide torrent. Waves innumerable
Meet there and madden—waves innumerable
Urge on and overtake the waves before,
And disappear in thunder and in foam.
They reach, they leap,—the abyss
Swallows insatiable the sinking waves.
A thousand rainbows arch them, and the woods
Are deafened with the roar. The violent shock
Shatters to vapor the descending sheets.
A cloudy whirlwind fills the gulf, and heavens
The mighty pyramid of circling mist
To heaven. The solitary hunter near
Pauses with terror in the forest shades.
What seeks thy restless eye? Why are not here,
About the jaws of this abyss, the palms—
Ah, the delicious palms—that on the plains
Of my own native Cuba spring and spread
Their thickly foliaged summits to the sun,
And in the breathings of the ocean air,
Wave soft beneath the heaven's unspotted blue?
But no, Niagara,—thy forest pines
Are fitter coronal for thee. The palm,
The effeminate myrtle and frail rose may grow
In gardens, and give out their fragrance there,
Unmanning him who breathes it. Thine it is
To do a nobler office. Generous minds
Behold thee, and are moved, and learn to rise
Above earth's frivolous pleasures; they partake
Thy grandeur, at the utterance of thy name.



From *Evolución de la Cultura Cubana*

JOSÉ MARÍA HEREDIA Y HEREDIA

God of all truth! in other lands I've seen
 Lying philosophers, blaspheming men,
 Questioners of thy mysteries, that draw
 Their fellows deep into impiety;
 And therefore doth my spirit seek thy face
 In earth's majestic solitudes. Even here
 My heart doth open all itself to thee.
 In this immensity of loneliness
 I feel thy hand upon me. To my ear
 The eternal thunder of the cataract brings
 Thy voice, and I am humbled as I hear.
 Dread torrent, that with wonder and with fear
 Dost overwhelm the soul of him that looks
 Upon thee, and dost bear it from itself,—
 Whence hast thou thy beginning? Who supplies,
 Age after age, thy unexhausted springs?
 What power hath ordered, that when all thy
 weight
 Descends into the deep, the swollen waves
 Rise not and roll to overwhelm the earth?
 The Lord has opened his omnipotent hand,
 Covered thy face with clouds, and given voice
 To thy down-rushing waters; he hath girt
 Thy terrible forehead with his radiant bow.
 I see thy never-resting waters run
 And I bethink me how the tide of Time
 Sweeps by eternity. So pass, of man,—
 Pass, like a noonday dream—the blossoming days,

And he awakes to sorrow. I, alas!—
 Feel that my youth is withered, and my brow
 Ploughed early with the lines of grief and care.
 Never have I so deeply felt as now
 The hopeless solitude, the abandonment,
 The anguish of a loveless life. Alas!
 How can the impassioned, the unfrozen heart
 Be happy without love? I would that one
 Beautiful, worthy to be loved and joined
 In love with me, now shared my lonely walk
 On this tremendous brink. 'Twere sweet to see
 Her sweet face touched with paleness, and become
 More beautiful from fear, and overspread
 With a faint smile, while clinging to my side.
 Dreams,—dreams! I am an exile, and for me
 There is no country and there is no love.
 Hear, dread Niagara, my latest voice!
 Yet a few years, and the cold earth shall close
 Over the bones of him who sings thee now
 Thus feelingly. Would that this, my humble
 verse,

Might be, like thee, immortal! I, meanwhile,
 Cheerfully passing to the appointed rest,
 Might raise my radiant forehead in the clouds
 To listen to the echoes of my fame.

The ambition expressed at the end of this poem, more humbly than Horace's confident assertion regarding his "monument more lasting than bronze", bids fair to be achieved.

The two chief characteristics of Heredia, according to Dr. José María Chacón y Calvo, the noted Cuban authority², were his identification with nature and his freedom-loving, humanitarian spirit, dedicated to the highest patriotism. Although limited by now outmoded aesthetic fashions, Heredia had (as may be seen even in translation) a lyric impulse, a passionate ardor, and a penetrating vision of physical reality such that in certain poems his art surmounted the trammels of his era and achieved a classic quality.

These gifts are displayed in all of Heredia's greatest poems, which are gen-

² See "Evocación de José María Heredia", by José María Chacón y Calvo, *BOLETÍN de la Unión Panamericana*, mayo de 1939. The remainder of this sketch is based chiefly on the aforementioned study and on the article concerning Heredia in "Evolución de la Cultura Cubana (1608-1927)", Vol. II, José Manuel Carbonell y Rivero, ed., La Habana, 1928.

erally considered to include also *En el Teocalli de Cholula* (written on an ancient Mexican pyramid), *En una Tempestad* (freely rendered into English by William Cullen Bryant under the title of *The Hurricane*)³; and *A Bolívar*, an ode to the South American Liberator.

Heredia's short life of thirty-five years was saddened by exile from his beloved country and terminated by a lingering illness. He was born in Santiago, Cuba, on December 31, 1803, of an aristocratic family descended from one of the Spanish conquistadors. Being fervently democratic, he dropped the particle *de* from his name and renounced an inheritance bearing with it the title of marquis.

His father, José Francisco de Heredia, who was a magistrate in Caracas and later in Mexico, was known for his uprightness and intellectuality. Even during a crisis in the affairs of Venezuela, he was not too preoccupied to write a letter with admonitions as to his precocious first-born: "Every day José María must be sure to study his logic lesson and read a chapter of the Gospels and the Epistles and a psalm, as he used to with me each afternoon. He should review his catechism once a week and Horace's *De Arte Poetica*, construe a passage of Virgil, and go over the rules of poetry, so that he can study law when he comes here and receive his promised watch if he has earned it by obedience and good behavior."

As the boy grew up he continued his education in Santo Domingo, Caracas, Mexico City and Habana. From the Cuban university he graduated in 1821, having chosen law as his father had planned. After two years' advanced study, he opened an office at Matanzas. It was

only a few months later, however, that he was obliged to flee to the United States because of his membership in a society advocating the independence of Cuba. There he taught Spanish, wrote (doubtless mindful of Horace and Virgil), and published in 1825 his first volume of poetry, including the celebrated ode to Niagara. He said in a letter at the time of his visit to the falls: "I know not what analogy that wild and solitary spectacle has with my feelings. I seemed to see in the torrent the reflection of my passions and my stormy life. Like the rapids of Niagara, my heart seethes in search of the ideal perfection that I vainly pursue on earth."⁴

The same year he was invited to return to Mexico by President Victoria. That country, hospitable to him and to many other Cubans, gave him judicial positions, a welcome in political, social, and intellectual circles, and a devoted wife. Having conspired in Mexico for the independence of Cuba, in 1832 he was placed under sentence of death in his fatherland. In 1836, ill and homesick, he took advantage of an amnesty to revisit Cuba and its "delicious palms" that he had missed at Niagara. His stay was of short duration, for the atmosphere was one of suspicion and tyranny, and he returned to Mexico early the next year. Without his former means of support, the poet, now a prey to tuberculosis, endured two years of illness and frequent privation until death released him on May 7, 1839.

Dr. Chacón y Calvo relates an interesting parallel between the lives of Heredia and his father. When the victorious Spanish general Monteverde, scorning a pact with the Venezuelans that he had not bothered to keep even in appearance, boastingly said, "Everything is quiet here," the elder Heredia, disregarding his own

³ See "*Hispanic Anthology: Poems translated from the Spanish by English and North American poets*," collected and arranged by Thomas Walsh. *Hispanic Notes and Monographs, Peninsular Series IV*. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York and London, 1920.

⁴ Translated from Hills, *op. cit.*

position, replied, "No place is more quiet than a desert or a cemetery."

Heredia the poet was true to this parental tradition. When as a member of the Mexican Congress he was asked to assent to a proposal to confer the title of "well deserving of his country" on General Santa Anna, he refused, although he stood by himself, and against one who had shown him kindness. His reason was that many leaders who had been exalted because of their services to liberty later became drunk with power and adulation and tried to revive the despotism they had destroyed. By this act of moral courage Heredia sacrificed his personal interests.

The poet wrote in the introduction to the second volume of his works: "The whirlwind of revolution has caused me to travel far in a brief time. With more or less good fortune I had been lawyer, soldier, traveler, language teacher, diplomat, journalist, magistrate, historian, and poet by the time I was twenty-five. All my writings must show the peculiar volubility of my mind." To this Dr. Chacón y Calvo adds that research shows that Heredia was also judge, writer on political and penal law, mountain climber, conspirator condemned to death, father of many children, and a profoundly

solitary man always tormented by poverty and the endless worries of daily life, but that above all he was a dreamer of fresh and unspoiled dreams, who never, even in his last days—the most poverty-stricken and solitary of all—ceased to receive consolation, strength, and new hope from the splendor of beauty.

It is hoped that a lasting tribute may be paid by the Americas to their famous son, Heredia, in accordance with the resolution of the Lima Conference:

WHEREAS:

May 7, 1939 marks the first centenary of the death of the great Cuban poet, José María de Heredia y Heredia, bard of Niagara and of the Teocalli of Cholula, defender of the cause of American liberty and propagator of the ideals of republican democracy in the New World;

The Eighth International Conference of American States

RECOMMENDS:

1. That during the year 1939 the American Governments render homage to the memory of the illustrious Cuban poet, in the manner which may be considered most fitting.

2. That the countries of America lend their support to the movement initiated in Cuba to perpetuate the name of the great poet by erecting a monument facing the marvelous spectacle of Niagara Falls.

The New Constitution of El Salvador

THE CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY of El Salvador which met on November 20, 1938, to draft a Constitution to replace that of 1886, approved the text of the new document on January 20, 1939, and President Maximiliano H. Martínez promulgated it the same day.

The new material incorporated in the 1939 Constitution includes a chapter entitled *Family and Labor*, a section establishing the Department of Justice, additional articles in the section on the Treasury including the creation of a Court of Accounts, and a provision for extending the vote to women.

Section I of the Constitution defines the nation and the form of government. Salvador is a free, sovereign, and independent nation, with a republican, democratic, and representative form of government. The former provision that it can never be the patrimony of any family or individual is omitted. and the following statement added: "It aspires to form, with the other nations of the continent, a solidary democracy in America" (art. 1). The functions of government continue to be entrusted to three branches, legislative, executive, and judicial (art. 3). A new provision, article 5, is that no branch of the government may sign or ratify treaties in any way changing the established form of government or compromising national integrity, with one exception (art. 151 of the former constitution): "Since El Salvador is a unit of the former Republic of Central America, it still has the power to join with all or any of the component States to organize a National Government when circumstances permit and it is to its interest to do so" (art. 6).

Section II deals with nationality. Native

Salvadoreans (art. 8) are those born in El Salvador of a Salvadorean father or mother, or of unknown parentage; children born abroad of Salvadorean father or mother, if they make their residence in the republic or are inscribed in the consular register; descendants of children of foreign parentage, if said children were born in El Salvador and have not adopted the nationality of their parents; and children of native Central Americans born in the republic. Naturalization will henceforth (art. 9) be granted to native Central Americans who express their desire to be Salvadoreans; to native Spaniards and Spanish Americans, after three years' residence in the country; to other aliens, after six years' residence, if they have a means of livelihood; to those whom the Legislature so honors for notable services to the state; to children of aliens born in the republic who express their desire to be Salvadoreans within a year after coming of age; and to foreign women married to Salvadoreans, unless at the time of marriage they declare their intention of retaining their original nationality. Salvadorean women who marry aliens retain their nationality unless they expressly adopt that of their husbands; in the latter case they may regain Salvadorean nationality when the marriage is dissolved (art. 10). Nationality is lost (art. 11) by naturalization elsewhere, although it may be regained by returning to El Salvador with no intention of going back to the country of naturalization, such intention being presumed by more than two years' residence in El Salvador.

There are two important additions to section III, on aliens. Aliens may not make claims through diplomatic channels

except when there has been a denial of justice and all other legal resources have been exhausted; those contravening this provision will lose the right to reside in the country (art. 14). The cases and form in which aliens may be refused entrance or residence to the republic will be established by law; any alien who directly or indirectly takes part in the domestic politics of the country or spreads doctrines that are anarchical, antisocial, or anti-democratic, will lose his right to live there (art. 15). Three articles (47, 48, 50) of the former Constitution are omitted; they provided that aliens could acquire property of all kinds; that by accepting a paid public office, except in the schools or the army, an alien was automatically naturalized; and that a special law dealing with aliens would regulate their status. The new Constitution (art. 16), as the old, states that no international pact may modify the provisions of this section.

Citizenship is treated in section IV. Article 17 states that all Salvadoreans over 18 years of age are citizens. The cases where citizenship may be suspended or lost (arts. 18, 19) are practically the same in both constitutions. Article 21 reads, "The exercise of the right of suffrage by women will be regulated in the Election Law."

The first chapter of section V, on rights and guarantees, begins with a new statement (art. 22) that the authorities are under obligation to make effective the individual, social, and national guarantees contained in the Constitution, and the citizens to fulfill the duties implicit in the exercise of their rights.

The next two articles are practically the same, that no hereditary positions or privileges are recognized, and that taxes may be levied only by special law and for public services. Article 24 adds, however, that the economic capacity of tax-

payers will be considered in levying taxes.

Article 25, granting to all inhabitants of the republic the right to preserve and defend their life, honor, liberty, and property, and to dispose freely of their property, forbids all entail, with two exceptions, which are new: trusts, when established on behalf of the nation, beneficent or cultural institutions within the country, individuals legally incapable of handling their affairs, or unborn but conceived children; and family homesteads (*bien de familia*).

Liberty of worship (art. 27) is guaranteed, with the additional proviso forbidding ministers of religion to use their spiritual authority for political ends. The rights of peaceful assembly and association for lawful ends are guaranteed (art. 28), but the establishment of conventual orders and monastic institutions is now expressly forbidden.

In recognizing freedom of contract, according to law (art. 32), the Constitution adds that to avoid usury, the state must encourage the offering of capital through credit institutions and the development of all kinds of cooperative societies. Imprisonment for debt is forbidden (art. 33).

The death penalty (art. 35) may be applied for military offenses, for crimes against the security of the State (treason, espionage, rebellion, sedition, conspiracy, or the intention to commit such crimes) or for murder, robbery, or arson, if in the latter two cases death results. The second classification is not only new, but reverses provisions of the former constitution, which recognized (arts. 36, 68 § 29) the right of insurrection.

To the reasons for which search warrants may be issued is added (art. 38) "for sanitary ends". The article (43) on detention and imprisonment has been altered; the prisoner must be personally informed for the reason of his detention within 48 hours, and if detained for inves-

tigation, he cannot be held without charge for more than 6 days. No one may now (art. 44) be detained for any period except in places set aside for the purpose, although prisoners may be sent elsewhere for public works; and no one may be held incommunicado for more than 48 hours. The provisions for extradition (art. 45) are also new. Those charged with political crimes, direct or indirect, will not be subject to extradition from El Salvador, nor will Salvadoreans be extradited for offenses committed abroad.

Freedom of thought and expression (art. 47) is retained, but with certain restrictions: those who write or reprint slanderous material against foreign nations, their governments, or diplomatic representatives accredited to the country, will be tried, on the basis of reciprocity. The circulation of any kind of publication tending to dissolve Salvadorean society or have a bad moral effect on its customs is forbidden (art. 48) and the State may, in conformity with law, censor public spectacles and radio broadcasts. Letters and telegrams are private (art. 49), and while intercepted correspondence still may not figure in court proceedings, the new Constitution allows for legal exceptions.

In dealing with private property, the Constitution mentions, as occasions when the nation may exercise the right of eminent domain, the construction of national highways and the supplying of water to cities and towns, in addition to military purposes in time of war (art. 50). Only native Salvadoreans and societies composed exclusively of them, may own or have rights in property within 15 kilometers (9.3 miles) of the coast or boundary lines (art. 51); foreigners owning such property must relinquish it within 25 years.

The artistic, historic, and archaeological wealth of the country is considered an integral part of the cultural treasury of the

nation and is put under the protection of the state and made subject to special laws for its preservation (art. 52).

No corporation of any kind will have the legal power to own or administer for its own ends any real estate except that used for the immediate purposes of the organization or for public benefit (art. 53).

Article 54, dealing with education, is much more comprehensive than that of the former Constitution. Education is open to all, and primary education compulsory; no religious instruction may be given in schools supported entirely or in part from national or municipal funds. Private schools will be under the supervision and control of the state. Both the nation and the cities shall increase primary school facilities, and the state encourage secondary, technical, and vocational school training and cultural activities of every kind. Only the nation may issue or validate academic degrees for the exercise of liberal professions in the republic.

Commerce and industry are open to all (art. 55), but possible Government monopolies have been extended to include, besides liquors, nitrate, and gunpowder, all arms and explosives, alcohol and alcoholic drinks, tobacco products, matches, and hydrocarbons. It is the duty of the state to encourage the exercise of small business and petty industries by Salvadoreans. No monopolies other than those reserved to the government are permitted, nor may any special protection be given industry, although privileges may be granted, for a period of not more than 10 years, to inventors or those who establish new industries in the country. The state has the exclusive right to coin money and administer postal, telegraph, telephone, and radio services.

Chapter II of this section is entirely new; it consists of five articles (60–64) dealing with the family and labor.

The family, as the basis of the nation, is entitled to special protection by the government, and the necessary laws will provide for improving family conditions, encouraging marriage, and giving protection to mothers and children. The institution of family homesteads (*bien de familia*), to be regulated by law, is established for the benefit of Salvadoreans.

Labor shall enjoy government protection (art. 62) by laws guaranteeing equity and justice in relations between employers and employees. Special regulations will be issued for the work of women and minors under 18 years, and for professional practice. Arbitration or conciliation tribunals, to be established by law, will decide conflicts between labor and capital (art. 63).

The merit system is to be the basis for the appointment of government employees, preference to be given first to native citizens, then to naturalized citizens or native Central Americans.

The legislative branch, considered in section VI, consists of the National Assembly of Deputies (art. 65), which will meet in regular session twice a year, from February 15 to May 15, and from October 15 to January 15; although these sessions may not be extended, the Assembly may adjourn early. Three-quarters of the membership, instead of a majority, now constitutes a quorum (art. 67). Deputies are elected for one year (art. 68), and January 31 is now set as the expiration of their term.

Deputies, who must be 25 years old, now must also be native Salvadoreans and if not natives of the district they represent, must have lived there for at least two years.

In addition to those hitherto ineligible as Deputies—officials receiving salaries from the nation within six months, and those holding state contracts or unpaid claims resulting from such contracts—the Constitution forbids (art. 70) those who

have administered public funds and whose accounts are not yet closed, relatives of the President, and those in arrears to a municipal or the national treasury, to be elected to the Assembly.

A new provision (art. 72) is that Deputies who fail to attend any sessions shall have their salaries docked for such absence, unless they have an adequate reason.

A Deputy is forbidden (art. 73) to hold any Presidential appointment during his term of office except a cabinet or diplomatic post and a teaching or unpaid position. The acceptance of any other office automatically removes a Deputy from the Assembly. A Deputy who resigns after he has taken his seat thereby becomes ineligible for a Presidential appointment until the close of the term for which he was elected.

The provisions that Deputies may not be held responsible for their opinion, nor, during their term of office, be sued or arrested (arts. 74, 75) are in the main the same as in the former Constitution.

The duties of the Assembly (art. 77) have been somewhat expanded. Among other things, it will deal with matters concerned with its internal organization; count the votes in Presidential elections, and if no candidate has received a majority, elect the President by public vote; inaugurate the President; elect the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, justices of Courts of Third and Second Instance, and the president and members of the Court of Accounts; name the three Presidential Designates, the Vice Presidency being abolished in the new Constitution; make, interpret, amend, and repeal laws; levy taxes, "on a just and equitable scale"; empower the President to contract voluntary loans which, when negotiated, must be submitted to the Assembly and approved by at least three-fourths of the Assembly; approve the annual national budget, giving preferential attention to health, education, the

administration of justice, and the police; grant amnesty for political offenses; decree, extend, and end martial law; coin money, regulate its value, and fix the standard of weights and measures; recognize the national debt and arrange for its payment; ratify treaties, a two-thirds majority being necessary in the case of those providing for arbitration on national boundaries; restrict the sale and use of alcoholic drinks, narcotics, and drugs; create and organize the merchant marine and civil aviation; fix annually the size of the peace-time army; call elections; and increase the number of Courts of Second Instance.

Provisions for the enactment of legislation have been somewhat altered. A law must be sent to the President for signature within 10 days after passage (art. 80), and if he wishes to veto it, he must return it within 8 days, otherwise it automatically becomes effective (art. 81). If it is returned on the grounds of unconstitutionality, and the Assembly passes it over his veto, the President must within three days apply to the Supreme Court, which must decide the point within 15 days. If the Court decides that it is constitutional, the President must sign and promulgate it (art. 82). All laws once passed must be published within 15 days (art. 83).

The Executive Power, discussed in section VII, is vested in the President, elected by direct popular suffrage, and the members of his Cabinet (art. 91). The incumbent for the period March 1, 1939, to January 1, 1945, however, was to be elected by the National Constituent Assembly, and for this once the provision in article 94, that a President can not succeed himself, could be waived. (By unanimous vote on January 21, 1939, President Martínez was reelected, and on March 1 he repeated the oath of office before the Assembly.) Succeeding presidential terms will be for six years, and begin on January 1 (art. 92).

In case of the death, resignation, or removal of the President, his place will be taken by a Presidential Designate, who will be elected by the Cabinet, Chief Justices of the Supreme Court, and the Legislature from among the three Designates appointed by the National Assembly. Elections must be held within six months after the Designate has taken office, and the new six-year term will begin on the January 1 following (art. 93).

The President must be a native Salvadorean, the son of native Salvadoreans; a layman; at least 35 years of age (instead of 30); an active citizen; and of known uprightness. Article 96 also adds a list of disqualifications for the office.

No President or Designate may resign except for serious reasons, duly proved, to be defined by the Assembly (art. 97).

The Cabinet will be composed of five members (instead of four), among whom the President shall divide the agencies of government as he sees fit; provision is also made for Assistant Secretaries (art. 99). The President has sole control of his Cabinet (art. 100). The requirements to be fulfilled by Cabinet members have been increased (art. 101); they are the same as for the President, except that only one parent need be a native Salvadorean, and the age limit is now 30 years, instead of 25. A list of disqualifications has also been added. Cabinet members may attend sessions of the Legislature, without vote, and must appear whenever summoned to give information, but retire before a vote is taken (art. 103).

Cabinet members are jointly responsible, with the President, for every measure authorized, even if they have voted against it, unless they resign immediately (art. 104).

The duties of the President and his Cabinet (art. 105) include: to maintain national integrity; keep order; approve

and promulgate laws; present an annual report to the Legislature within 15 days (instead of 8) after the beginning of its first session; draw up the budget for the coming year; provide information requested by the Assembly; arrange for the taking of a census within the next two years, and each ten years thereafter; maintain public health and improve sanitary conditions for the inhabitants; direct and give preference to public education, encouraging cultural, agricultural, and industrial activities in the country; give protection to mothers and children, establishing a special organization for that purpose (the last four duties being new).

The executive is empowered (art. 106) among other things: to direct foreign relations; appoint administrative officials and their staffs and those of the Army, except where it is otherwise stipulated; organize the army, the National Guard, and the police force; call special sessions of the Legislature when he deems it advisable; wage war and make peace; use the armed forces to maintain order in the country (a new provision) and increase their size, if necessary, to repel invasion and put down rebellion; veto laws; establish new means of communication and improve existing ones; and nationalize and register vessels, improve and close ports, and establish customhouses.

The permission of the Legislature is required if the President wishes to leave the country except under the exigencies of war (art. 107); when he leaves, he must hand over his duties to the duly authorized person, except when making a visit of less than eight days to another Central American nation.

The judicial power (section VIII) is vested in the Supreme Court, Courts of Third and Second Instances established by the Constitution, and lower courts established by law (art. 109). The Su-

preme Court, which will sit in the national capital, is composed of a Chief Justice and six magistrates from the two Courts of Third Instance (art. 110).

The duties of the Supreme Court (art. 112) are in the main those defined in the former Constitution, and include: to appoint judges of first instance and other judges and court officials; to administer justice promptly and fully; to give information directly to the Legislature as to flaws in legislation and introduce bills; to decree and make effective the recourse to *amparo*; to prepare the budget for the Department of Justice, for inclusion in the national budget; and to pass on the constitutionality of laws.

The provisions for Courts of Third and Second Instance have been changed (art. 114). There are two of the former, one for civil, the other for criminal cases, each with three magistrates; both have their seat in the national capital. Three of the six Courts of Second Instance, with two magistrates each, also have their seat in the capital, and the remaining three in other parts of the republic.

The qualifications for justices of the Supreme Court or of the Courts of Second Instance (art. 115) have been made more stringent. They must be native lay Salvadoreans, members of the Salvadorean bar, and over 35 years of age, and must have served either as Judge of First Instance for four years or practiced law for more than eight.

A new provision (art. 117) is that magistrates of the Supreme Court and of the Courts of Second Instance will be elected by the National Assembly, hold office for three years, and be eligible for reelection.

The functions of judges of the Courts of First Instance (art. 120) are to be defined by law; their qualifications (art. 121) are similar to those for higher magistrates, except that the age limit is 25 years. They

hold office for two years (art. 122) and while in office may not occupy any remunerative position in another branch of the government except that of teacher in the public schools (art. 123).

Article 124 introduces the establishment of military tribunals and defines their functions and jurisdiction. Collectors of Internal Revenue and of Customs may be granted special powers by law (art. 125) to deal with crimes against the Treasury, and mayors and police judges, to deal with misdemeanors committed by the police.

Article 126 provides for Justices of the Peace, whose number, appointment, and duties will be determined by law. It adds, however, that the National Assembly may, at the instance of the Supreme Court, change or modify the system of administering justice according to which these officials serve, for another more in accord with social needs.

The jury system is retained by article 127 for crimes coming under the jurisdiction of the Courts of First Instance. The Assembly is now empowered, however, to enlarge or restrict the competency of juries by determining the cases in which this system shall be used.

This section closes with two new provisions. Any court (art. 128) may declare any law or provision of the other branches of government that is contrary to the Constitution inapplicable to cases coming before it. Recourse to *amparo* (art. 129) may also come before the Supreme Court when based on the unconstitutionality of a law referring to matters not in the jurisdiction of other courts.

Section IX, dealing with the Department of Justice and consisting of three articles, is entirely new. The Department is composed (art. 130) of the Attorney General, the Attorney General of the Army, the Prosecuting Attorney of the Supreme and other Courts, the prosecuting attorneys of

the common law tribunals, the prosecuting attorneys of special tribunals, and the attorneys for municipalities and autonomous collective bodies created by the state.

The Attorney General, appointed by the President, must fulfill the qualifications required of magistrates, and will be responsible to the Ministry of Justice; the other members of the Department who are not appointed by other branches of government or elected by popular vote will be appointed by the respective Cabinet member (art. 131). A special law will specify the form of appointment, requirements, district, and functions of members of this Department (art. 132).

There are changes in section X, dealing with Departmental and local administration. As before, the republic is divided into Departments, administered by a governor or his alternate, both appointed by the President (art. 133). The qualifications for governor are somewhat more stringent than before (art. 134); he must now be a native Salvadorean, and the age limit has been raised from 25 to 30 years.

Local government is still in the hands of municipalities, composed of a mayor and a council; the council is still elected by popular vote, but the mayor is now a Presidential appointee (art. 135). It is the mayor, not the council, who is responsible for the administration of funds (art. 136). The new Constitution provides that he must have the same qualifications as a governor (art. 137). The municipalities are now given (art. 140) the right to levy local taxes, and to pass ordinances dealing with the police, health, and education. The President, while respecting the principle of municipal independence, is charged (art. 142) with seeing that the municipalities comply with the legislation that concerns them.

Section XI, dealing with elections, also has important changes. The President,

Deputies to National Assemblies, and members of municipal councils, are elected by direct popular vote (art. 143). The right to vote may not be renounced, and voting is obligatory except in the case of women, for whom it is voluntary (art. 144). The elections provided for in the Constitution must be held at the time set by law (art. 145), even though there has been no announcement to that effect. The number of Deputies is different; besides the three Deputies and two alternates to which each Department is entitled, the law may authorize the election of one Deputy and one alternate more in each Department having more than 150,000 population, for each additional 50,000 inhabitants. In addition to authorizing a special Election Law, article 149 adds that all electoral proceedings must be public and open to all.

National finances are discussed in section XII. All national revenues will compose a single fund, reserved for meeting the needs and obligations of the nation. Funds may be set aside for special purposes only for the service of the public debt; for the purchase of lands and construction of low-cost housing; and for welfare institutions or schools and official independent enterprises (art. 151). The annual budget (art. 153) shall cover all revenues and expenses of the nation, although independent institutions may have special budgets approved by the legislature. The Budget Law shall also specify the total floating debt for the year. The President, through the respective Ministry, is given authority over the general finances of the Republic, and is obliged to keep the budget balanced (art. 154). The articles discussed in this paragraph are all new.

The administration of public funds is entrusted to the Treasury (art. 155), which is bound by the budget law in its collections and disbursements. When the Assembly is not in session, however, the

President may authorize payments in case of war or the threat of war, disturbance of public peace, or public calamities, but the approval of the Assembly must be sought at its next meeting.

The remaining articles of this section are all new. In times of scarcity or public calamity, taxes on articles of prime necessity may be temporarily suspended (art. 156). The Assembly may lessen or abolish credits requested, but never increase them (art. 157).

The national Court of Accounts is established as an independent unit (art. 158). The following are its most important functions: to inspect and guard the collection, custody, and disbursement of public moneys; to authorize all disbursements from the public treasury; to direct, inspect, and approve the accounts of officials handling public funds; to supervise the financial management of public establishments (although article 165 exempts credit institutions from this provision, and states that in general it refers only to the annual auditing of accounts).

All national or municipal contracts involving revenues must be awarded by public bids, and no contract may be signed in which the final decision, in case of controversy, will be rendered by a foreign court (art. 162).

Every concession granted by contract for the establishment of piers, railways, canals, or any other public utility must contain the stipulation that at the end of a certain period, whose maximum shall be 50 years, the property shall be turned over to the government in perfect condition, without any indemnity (art. 163).

The national army is discussed in section XIII. Among the changes incorporated in the new Constitution are the provisions (art. 168) that soldiers in active service do not have the right to vote and may hold no public office except the Presidency;

military service is obligatory for all citizens between the ages of 18 and 50, and in case of war, all the able bodied citizens may be called upon to bear arms (art. 169); the size of the standing army in time of peace shall be fixed annually by the Assembly (art. 170); and the Commander in Chief of the Army (who, by article 98, is the President) is given specified powers (art. 174).

Section XIV deals with the responsibility of public officials. An oath of office must be taken by each civil and military official, but for nonfulfillment he is now responsible "according to law", instead of "with his person and property" (art. 176). The authorities to which the various members of the government shall be answerable for alleged malfeasance in office are specified in articles 177, 178, 179, and 185. Accusation automatically means suspension from office (art. 180). No amnesty may be granted to office holders convicted of unconstitutional acts, during the Presidential term during which such acts were committed (art. 187).

The method of amending the Constitution and Constituent Laws is described in section XV. Amendments may be made (art. 188) by a Constituent Assembly convoked by a plebiscite giving the approval of at least two-thirds of the citizens entitled to vote; by a constituent assembly to be convoked every 25 years to make such changes as experience shows are

needed; and by two consecutive National Assemblies. In the first two cases there is no limit to their authority; in the third, changes may not be made in sections I, V, VI, VII, VIII, XII, and XV.

Constituent Laws are defined as those dealing with the press, martial law, *amparo*, and elections (art. 189).

The final section, XVI, contains temporary provisions. The portions of the Constitution dealing with the reorganization of the Judicial Power and the Department of Justice will go into effect on July 1, 1939 (art. 193).

Because the date on which elections for Deputies should have been held had gone by before the Constitution was adopted and the Election Law passed, the members of the Constituent Assembly were authorized to assume the functions of the National Assembly for the period beginning February 15, 1939 (art. 194).

The municipal governments will not be changed until the expiration of the present terms (art. 196).

All laws and regulations in force, not opposed to the provisions of the new Constitutions, remain in force, as do others until they can be amended to conform to it (art. 197).

The Constitution went into effect (art. 198) on the day of its publication in the *Diario Oficial* (January 20, 1939), and thereby the Constitution of August 13, 1886, was repealed.—B. N.





THE BANK OF THE REPUBLIC, MONTEVIDEO, URUGUAY

PAN AMERICAN *Progress*

Regional Conference of Ministers of Finance

The conference held at Montevideo, Uruguay, from January 27 to February 3, 1939, by the Ministers of Finance of Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay adopted three declarations on commercial and economic policy, immigration, and custom procedure, respectively.

Commercial and financial policy

The declaration with respect to commercial and financial policy states that the Conference action is based "on the unanimous desire that the restrictions imposed by the majority of creditor countries, which consume agricultural products, be modified so as to eliminate the barriers that create

obstacles to the payment of imports from debtor countries, which produce agricultural commodities, in order that the latter may gradually abandon the systems of exchange control they were obliged to adopt in order to redress their balance of payments and prevent further reductions in their trade with the great consuming countries." Without waiting for the exchange situation to be normalized, the four countries have decided to make every effort possible to develop their reciprocal trade by lowering their tariffs and adapting their systems of exchange control.

The intervention of the central or official banks of the four countries (Banco Central de la República Argentina, Banco do Brasil, Banco de la República del Paraguay and the Banco de la República

Oriental del Uruguay) is regarded as essential to achieve these aims. The banks are asked: 1) to negotiate bilateral agreements to secure for the payment of imports from the other countries the most favorable rate of exchange applied to similar products from other countries; 2) to endeavor, in the trade between the four countries, to adopt the currency of the purchasing or the selling country; 3) to secure adequate means to provide immediate cover for the value of the exports from countries represented at the Conference; 4) through procedures minimizing the risk of operations to take measures so that in each country the currencies of the other three countries shall have a value equal to that of their international parity; 5) to make individual studies of a practical credit system allowing them to aid each other when trade is temporarily unbalanced and it is desirable to avoid seasonal movements of gold or displacement of exchange; 6) to seek the reduction or elimination of stamp taxes and commissions on exchange operations, collections and movement of funds between the four countries; 7) to establish the bases for the interchange of information on the economic, commercial, and monetary situation, and on bills, laws, decrees or regulations which affect imports, exports, and the movement of capital; 8) to arrange for the exchange of information about each bank's operations in the other three countries; and 9) to establish in each bank a liaison office with the other banks. If the banks lack authority to carry out any of the above recommendations they shall propose to their Governments adequate measures to put them into effect.

Immigration

With regard to immigration the Conference decided to initiate a convention, to be signed later, by approving the following seven articles:

1. The High Contracting Parties agree to make every effort to prevent passage through their frontiers of persons lacking the necessary documents, in accordance with the laws in force in each country, as well as of persons notoriously known as disturbers of the public order or considered undesirable because of their antecedents.

2. In order to give effect to the provisions of the previous article the High Contracting Parties resolve:

a) That immigration shall be supervised by the State.

b) Aliens who are not physically or morally sound shall be considered undesirable in accordance with the respective national legislation.

3. The countries represented (*sic*) agree to put the following measures into practice:

a) Aliens shall be classified into two groups depending on whether they intend to enter the country for a permanent or a temporary stay.

b) The consular authorities when visaing or granting documents to an alien who intends to reside permanently in the territory of one of the contracting countries shall take into consideration the requirements contained in Article 2.

c) Aliens upon entering the territory of one of the contracting countries shall be examined by the competent authorities, in accordance with their respective laws.

4. The High Contracting Parties likewise agree to amplify the interchange of information relative to undesirable aliens.

5. The High Contracting Parties shall facilitate the transit of passengers, in accordance with their respective laws, decrees, or orders.

6. This Convention is open to the adherence of any of the other countries of the American Continent.

7. The present convention shall be approved in accordance with the constitutional procedure of each of the contracting parties and shall be in force for at least three years; it shall be renewed tacitly and indefinitely, unless one of the High Contracting Parties denounces it with at least six months' previous notice.

A recommendation was also made to the Governments represented at the Conference to the end that passports and other documents be visaed by career instead of *ad honorem* consular authorities and that the necessary measures be taken to identify and register resident aliens as well as those

who enter the respective national territories with the intention of establishing a permanent residence therein.

Custom Procedure

With regard to custom procedure the Ministers of Finance recommended to their respective Governments that they take the administrative measures necessary to put into effect the provisions contained in articles 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 of the *Convention for the Repression of Smuggling*, signed at the Pan American Commercial Conference held at Buenos Aires in 1935.

To prevent smuggling along the land or river frontiers during transit, transshipment or reembarkation operations they recommended the adoption of a system of landing certificates. One copy of this certificate is to accompany the ship or vehicle transporting the merchandise, the other is to be sent by mail to the custom house where the merchandise is to be received. Stringent measures were also recommended to prevent smuggling by aircraft. A recommendation was made that the classification of offenses and penalties imposed for smuggling be standardized in the four countries. The custom patrols along the frontiers are to be strengthened until custom posts are separated from each other by not more than 50 kilometers (31 miles). Merchants, custom brokers, captains, pilots, etc., who have been convicted on a smuggling charge will not be allowed to transact business at any of the custom houses of the four countries for a period of from one to ten years. Provision is also made for the exchange of custom officials and the maintenance of communication between the custom bureaus of the four countries. The Conference likewise recommended the formation of a permanent commission to study measures to prevent smuggling and to standardize tariff schedules and rates.

Foreign Exchange Agreement by Argentina and Brazil

To carry out both the letter and the spirit of the financial and commercial agreements reached at the Regional Conference of Ministers of Finance at Montevideo (see above), the Governments of Argentina and Brazil signed an agreement on Foreign Exchange in Buenos Aires on Pan American Day, April 14, 1939.

The treaty provides: 1) the Argentine Government assures previous permits for official exchange for merchandise of Brazilian origin; 2) export drafts of Argentine products destined to Brazil will be negotiated in the official exchange market; 3) the Government of Brazil assures payment for Argentine imports under the most favorable conditions permitted by its exchange policy; and 4) both Governments bind themselves to prevent as far as possible any disturbance of the normal development of commerce between the two countries.

The agreement will be effective until the signing of a definitive treaty of commerce, of which it will be a part.

Message of the President of El Salvador

"In other circumstances I would not accept a designation which does me so much honor", said General Maximiliano Hernández Martínez, President of El Salvador, on March 1, 1939, in expressing his thanks to the National Assembly for extending his term of office until December 31, 1944. He justified his acceptance by his desire to avoid a repetition of the regrettable events witnessed before the year 1932, the date upon which he took charge of the Government, such as "the habit of not paying civil servants punctually, forcing them to sell their salary receipts at a discount of 50 percent or more; the habit of



THE NATIONAL PALACE IN SAN SALVADOR

floating foreign loans as a solution to the lack of funds with which to meet the expenses of the administration; the general paralysis of many public services . . . ; budgetary deficits which year by year enormously increased the internal debt . . . ; the disorder in the preparation and execution of the budget and the issuance of arbitrary orders withdrawing funds from the General Treasury of the Republic; the organization, with full knowledge of the authorities, of parties with destructive tendencies, which brought about the Communist uprising of January 22, 1932 . . . ; the general economic disorganization of the country through the lack of strong banks established for the sole purpose of serving the general interests of the country; the unstable foreign exchange situation, a chronic disease a remedy for which it seemed impossible to find; the high interest rates, which fluctuated between 10 and 15 percent for short-term crop loans as well as for long-term loans." These and other evils the President stated had been stopped by his administration.

In contrast he offered the following picture: 1) The present administration, despite the fact that it has operated in a time of decreasing revenues, as compared with the period immediately preceding, has improved the condition of the Treasury by more than 10,000,000 colones: 2) it has cut down the public debt by nearly 7,000,000 colones (to 36,715,000 colones on January 1, 1939); 3) it has used a considerable portion of the old taxes and the greater part of the new taxes, more than 14,650,000 colones in all, to establish and maintain institutions useful to the national economy, erect the National Stadium, promote physical culture, and accumulate funds for the construction of the National University and post offices and the future purchase of electric plants.

With the proceeds from old taxes, which

previously went into the General Fund, and the revenue derived from new taxes the Government had invested the following amounts up to June 30, 1938:

	<i>Colones</i>
Social Welfare Fund	4,765,000
Coffee Association	370,000
Cattle Raising Association	59,000
Mortgage Bank	4,792,000
Purchase of shares in Central Bank	1,076,000
Indemnities paid to other banks when the Central Bank was established	2,249,000
Fund for the erection of the National University	243,000
Fund for the construction of post offices	199,000
Fund for the purchase of electric power plants	156,000
Fund for the construction of the National Stadium and athletic fields and for the development of physical culture	750,000
Total	14,659,000

The President stated that while the improvement in the Treasury position could be readily seen by the figures quoted, the main achievement of the Government in matters of public finance had been to reorganize the management of public funds and place it on a sound basis.

Reviewing the work of the Central Reserve Bank, established in 1934,¹ the President stated that it has succeeded in regulating the circulation of currency in accordance with the needs of the country, stabilized the value of the colón in terms of foreign currency, and reduced the excessive interest rates previously charged for loans. The foreign exchange holdings of the bank on December 31, 1938, amounted to \$1,281,500.

From 1925 to June 30, 1932, according to the President's estimates, the administration then in office spent 7,161,477 colones on the construction and maintenance of roads. With a total investment

¹ See "*The Central Reserve Bank of El Salvador*". BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, February 1935.

of only 6,026,262 colones from July 1, 1932 to December 31, 1938 the President stated that his administration had exceeded the mileage built during the previous seven years.

Besides creating a fund for the construction of the University city the message states that from 1932 to 1938 the government has built 165 new schools, established normal schools for boys and girls, created a military academy and purchased new equipment for technical schools.

Payments upon the foreign debt, which amounted to 36,237,110.96 colones in 1932 and to 34,530,958.59 colones in 1938, were suspended on January 1, 1938, after the Government, in view of the situation of the coffee industry, removed the export tax on that commodity as far as the 67 per cent which the Government received. The remaining 33 percent goes to the Mortgage Bank of El Salvador and is still paid.

Employees share companies' profits in Venezuela

Employees and laborers of petroleum companies and all other commercial and industrial establishments in Venezuela received their first bonus last March under the profit-sharing law signed by President Eleazar López Contreras on December 17, 1938. This law implements Art. 63 of the Venezuelan Labor Code, which states: "Employees and laborers shall have a share in the net profits of the enterprises or establishments for which they work, in accordance with the system and in the proportion to be fixed by the Federal Executive after consultation with commissions appointed for this purpose. The Federal Executive shall fix the maximum limit of the percentage of this participation, which in no case shall exceed annually an amount equal to two months' salary or wages for

employees or laborers of large enterprises or establishments, or one month's for employees or laborers in small enterprises or establishments." ¹

The employee's participation in the net profits of the companies has been fixed as a percentage of his total wages during the year. This percentage varies from 12.45 percent in the case of large enterprises which have more than 400 employees or a capital of over one million bolívares, to 2.05 percent in the case of small establishments with less than 50 workers or a capital of less than 50,000 bolívares. In some cases bonuses paid by the large petroleum companies to Venezuelan workers were as large as \$1,200. Future bonuses, however, will be smaller since the ones just paid cover not only the amounts due from December 1, 1937 to December 1, 1938, but also include an additional payment of one-third the amount due during that period to cover the payments which the companies were obligated to make from July 16, 1936, the date on which the Labor Law went into effect, to November 30, 1937.

The employee receives only half of his bonus in cash. One half of the amount due him as his share of the company's profits is deposited to his account in the savings department of a local bank. This constitutes a form of compulsory saving, since prior to the deposit of six annual bonuses the employee may not withdraw his funds except in cases of extreme emergency, and then requires the approval of a labor official. The payment of the first bonus has, however, put a large amount of cash into circulation, specially in the towns where the 20,000 workers of the petroleum companies live.

The Ministry of Labor and Communications reports that up to March 31, 1939

¹ See "The New Labor Law of Venezuela," BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, December 1936.

Venezuelan workers had received a total of 10,129,192 bolívares (\$3,170,437) as their share of the net profits of commercial and industrial establishments; of this sum 5,604,863 bolívares (\$1,757,322) were paid to them directly in cash and 4,524,329 bolívares (\$1,416,115) were deposited to their account.—G. A. S.

Colombia Promotes the Construction of Rural Dwellings

The Government of Colombia has initiated a campaign to promote the construction of rural dwellings. To this end it has issued a law assigning to the territorial credit banks, which are being established in those parts of the country not served by the mortgage banks,¹ the additional duty of promoting the construction of homes for agricultural workers. These credit institutions will have a central autonomous office in Bogotá, to be known as the Territorial Credit Institute, which will coordinate their activities as far as they refer to loans on rural homes. The Institute, established for a term of forty years, will begin operations with an initial capital of 1,000,000 pesos, already subscribed by the Government. The capital will be raised to 3,500,000 pesos through the subscription of another million by the National Government, half a million by the Departments and municipalities and one million by banks.

The Institute, like the territorial credit banks, is authorized to make long term mortgage loans for the construction of dwellings for agricultural workers. The

¹ See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, July, 1938

period for amortization may be extended to thirty years and the loans can be made directly to small farmers, to landowners who desire to erect dwellings for workers on their haciendas, or to those Departments and municipalities which propose to erect small rural buildings. The banks and the Institute are authorized to import construction materials free of duty and to sell them at cost prices to those who have received loans. The Board of Directors of the Institute will consist of the Minister of Finance and Public Credit, the Minister of Labor, Hygiene and Social Welfare, a representative of the Departments and municipalities appointed by the President of the Republic and three representatives of the banks that subscribe shares.

Port Works at Progreso, Mexico

Rapid progress is reported on the construction of a pier, at the port of Progreso in the Mexican state of Yucatan, which will advance into the sea for a distance of 2 kilometers (a little more than a mile) and enable the majority of ships calling at this port to dock for the loading and unloading of cargo and passengers. Progreso, a shallow open roadstead, is the principal port of entry for the State of Yucatan and the outlet for sisal, the most important export commodity of the region. The construction of the pier is of importance since at present vessels drawing more than 12 feet must anchor offshore and handle all cargo by lighter. The pier is being built by a Danish concern and the contract specifies that it must be finished in December 1939.

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The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant

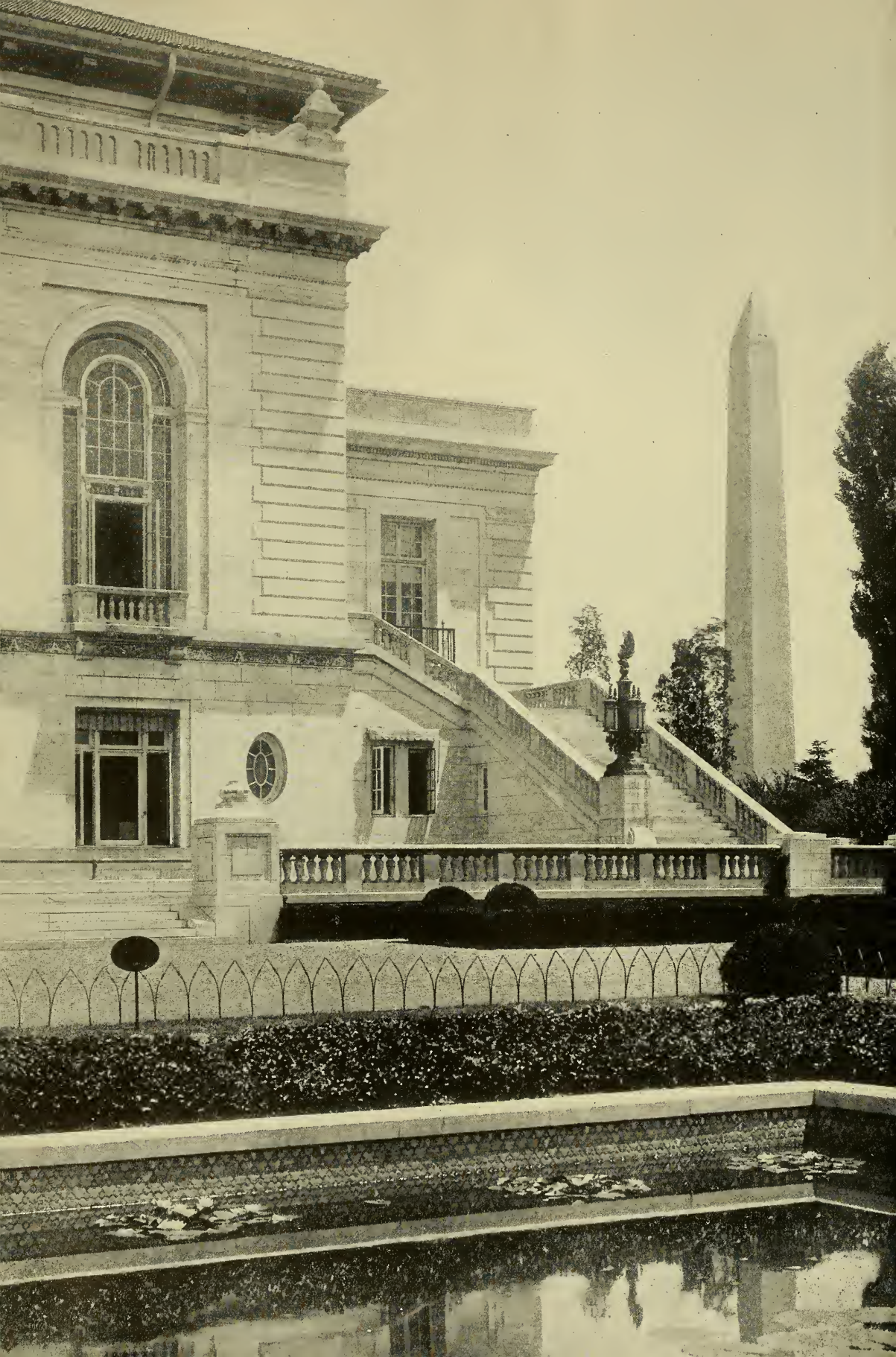
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in the "Readers' Guide" in your library.)

ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT FROM THE
GARDEN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION





PLATE I.—MANUEL HUALLPAR, DRAWN IN PISACC, PERÚ, BY EBEN F. COMINS

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIII, No. 7



JULY 1939

Indians That I Have Drawn

EBEN F. COMINS

IT HAS BEEN MY GOOD FORTUNE to spend the last three summers in Mexico, Guatemala, Perú and Bolivia making drawings of the various Indian types. The question of how the Americas came to be populated is a moot one, about which there are two theories. Certainly these continents never claimed title to being the Garden of Eden, and the birthplace of man, it is conceded, was far off to the west across the Pacific. Man came here either by the Arctic route over the natural bridge of the Aleutians or by crossing the Pacific Ocean via the equatorial route over the scattered islands. After studying the faces of thousands of descendants and drawing a great number of them and covering an immense territory to do so, I find three dominant color strains that stand out and that I label:

I. Red-Brown People (Pacific Islands, Indian Ocean)

II. Blue-Black, Brown People (Hindu)

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III. Yellow-Brown People (Chinese and Mongolian)

Looking over my drawings and mental catalogue, I see similarities of features and traits as well as color strain among the Indians of our two continents. A type of slanting eye seen in Oaxaca, Mexico, duplicates one in faraway Cusco, Perú. A large mouth with projecting teeth and pink gums in Pátzcuaro, Mexico, is cousin to one in Pisacc, Perú.

Four hundred years have gone by since the Spanish invasion and consequently there has been much interbreeding but still strains stand out that cannot be ignored. The one that struck me as the most important was the red tone that flushed the brown skin of the purest type of Inca of the Andes. I saw it again in the faraway mountains of San Juan Atitán in Guatemala. It dominated in the Mayan's skin at Chichén-Itzá, Yucatán, and continued in our Red Skins of North America until it fringed out into the Esquimaux

and stopped. This red tinge is not mongrel blood. It is in the Indians who gave the highest civilization to our two continents, the Mayans and Incas.

The Indians of Central and South America are rarely over five feet tall. Their hands and feet are tiny but their stature has nothing to do with their strength. They are like powerful and sturdy little animals.

In Perú the Number I type, the Red-Brown, is very noticeable, especially in remote Chincheros, that last stronghold to stand against the Spaniards, and in Pisacc. In the latter place I found a perfect example, Manuel Huallpar. He was the leader of twelve men, the pillars of the church, in the most picturesque pueblo I saw.

To get there from Cusco one motors through fertile valleys that slowly become hemmed in by steep mountains rich in shades of green. Indians passing by always give a cheerful smile to the traveller, so different from the absolute coldness and indifference of the Mexican peon.

A river, clear as crystal, followed the road. The early morning sun shot rays of golden light between great stone cliffs and outlined nearby eucalyptus trees with dazzling halos. Finally the motor turned a sharp right angle and slowly started out onto a shaky suspension bridge which quivered as we cautiously traversed it before our way dropped down into Pisacc, a completely strange world.

Stone and adobe one-story houses lined the few streets and the main plaza, which was built round the little white church, one of the oldest and quaintest in the country and the only one I ever saw that had no floor, not even flagging, nothing but the bare earth. The walls and rafters were ornamented with crumbling duli frescoes, a mixture of pagan and Christian symbols. One of the most glorious altars

in Perú dominated the end, a mass of gold and color, scintillating with little mirrors whose sharp pricking lights gave drama to its solemnity. The small primitive organ was pumped by two great blacksmith bellows, worked alternately by hand, and its wheezy sound made a naive background for the murmur of the ritual. Instead of being in the gallery where organs generally are it was mid-church by the side wall. The only light came through the great side portal and showed a mass of kneeling dark brown Indians through which a procession wended its way, led by the priest in vestments of green and gold brocade edged with old lace. My model-to-be accompanied him leading the other eleven Elect, each carrying his silver mounted *bastón* and wearing crown-like red hats and high flapping shoes. They are the only Indians allowed to wear anything on their feet in this church. The others take off their sandals on entering and carry them in their hands. The women are of course barefoot with their heads covered by dark blue and purple llicllas (shawls). Acolytes swung smoking censers or carried lighted candles centered in bouquets of flowers while one walked ahead carrying a bowl of flower petals which he scattered on the ground. Over all the padre sprinkled his blessings in holy water. A group of young runners-up for the high position of the Twelve Pillars followed, blowing upon great conch shells that gave forth an unearthly sound as strange as it was haunting. Never had I heard its equal in or outside a church. It seemed like echoes of the Inca past picked up by their living children. Outside noisy rockets exploded, obviously to scare away any prowling devils that might wish to enter and steal a soul drifting waywardly. Also a group of merry-makers danced on the church steps dressed as monkeys, demons and Spanish Christians,

evidently added to entrance the devil's eye and keep his attention away from within. Nearby a group of the national beasts of burden, the llamas, looked on with stolid disdain.

After the service the Twelve Pillars of the church were lined outside along the wall and through the good offices of my guide I was allowed to choose Huallpar (Plate I) for my model. One of the principal men of the town lent me his house and office, a diminutive one-room hut, for a studio. Illustrations from newspapers ornamented the whitewashed adobe walls and it was so small my belongings filled it even to the built-in bunk.

My model posed like a statue and made a colorful and impressive picture. His upturned enormous crimson hat encrowned him and far outrivalled any that our fancy men milliners could create. No little flower pot poised on the side of the head, as we have seen this last season. This was a full sized punch bowl of flamboyant glory. He kissed the cross on his silver-mounted *bastón* every time he took it up or put it down. He used this badge of churchly position for more than spiritual balance, and it often supported his wavering steps.

From his neck hung a superb silver triple cross and above it a scapula of the Murillo Madonna. The heavy dark blue wool reefer-like coat was worn only on religious occasions. His face was typical of his race, simple, sufficiently intelligent, with good nose but a weak chin. His skin had the red tinge so common to the Inca as well as the Mayan. He had the full round-barrelled chest of the Indian living in the high Andes that is so necessary to withstand the rarefied air in this lofty altitude. Notice that the right cheek seems fuller; and fuller it surely is, for in his mouth he had and was chewing a good sized cud, not of tobacco, but of

coca leaves from the plant of the same name. They are treated with ash lye, then dried and carried in a bag slung over the shoulder. This makes a form of cocaine or dope which the Indian must have. Its properties dull the senses to fatigue, even pain. Practically all Indians use it. Constant chewing of it gradually swells the cheeks and it is easy to see its effects on the user. The Indians insist upon their daily ration and without it they will not work. With it they can be overworked by their overseers, who naturally do not object and are loath to cooperate with the Government, which is trying to abolish its use. Besides my model's constant chewing, his especial avocation was that of drinking *chicha*, a dull, flat drink made from corn boiled, then half strained and allowed to ferment. They drink it not by the glass but by the huge pitcher. Wishing to keep in his good graces I gave him six, and his Indian friends who had come with him almost as many more. Towards the last pitcher he began to show signs of swaying contentment and with my liberal pay and extra *propina* probably quite loved the white stranger as he left me physically guided and supported by his spiritual staff.

While in Lima I met the distinguished scientist Dr. Julio Tello. When I told him I had come to make drawings of different types of Indians he assured me that I didn't have to go gallivanting over the country, for I never need leave the capital where, at the Government's Army Barracks, I would find every type. This advice I took, though not in Lima, but in that great archeological Museum of the Incas, the city of Cusco, that veritable pageant of ancient history.

Through my efficient guide, Justo Cárdenas, I met Comandante Carlos

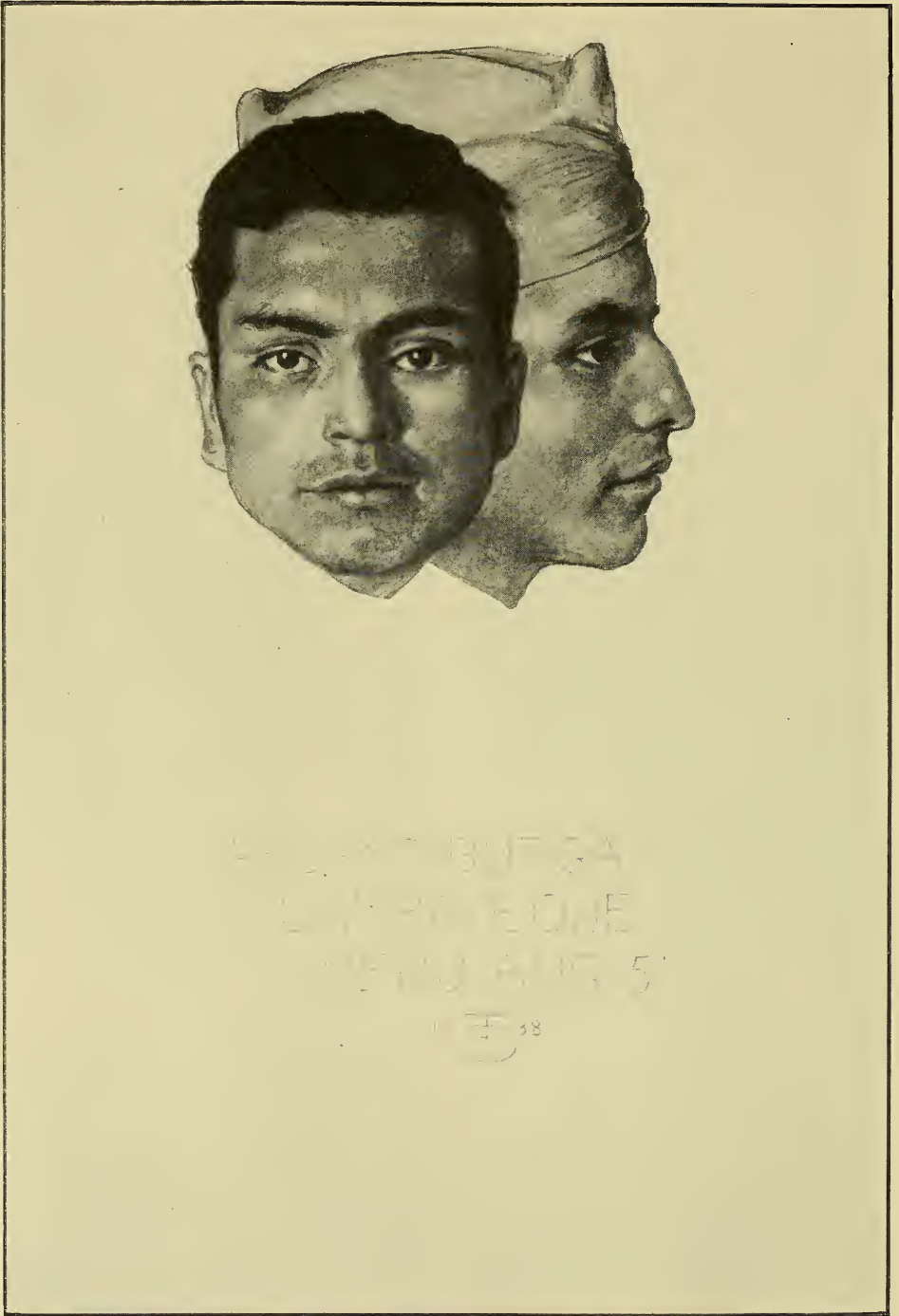


PLATE II.—PELAYO BURGA, DRAWN IN CUSCO, PERÚ, BY EBEN F. COMINS

Seminario, who received me with the utmost courtesy and told me to come back the next morning and he would have his men lined up for my inspection. When I appeared a full company was standing at attention in the courtyard. They were all splendid physical specimens and spoke well for the orderly and disciplined Army life. These descendants of the Incas make splendid soldiers and are a credit to their military forebears.

Accompanied by the Comandante, I walked between the lines studying the various faces. I finally chose Pelayo Burga (Plate II) because he was an outstanding example of Number II, the Blue-Black People. His color and features were distinctly Hindu and gave him the look of an Oriental.

I was told that this East Indian strain of color and features was without doubt the product of infiltration of East Indians whom the British had imported to the West Indies in more or less recent times. But I cannot agree with this theory. Finding this color in such out of the way sections of the different countries, I feel Burga's origin must hark back to remote times and that his ancestors stemmed from Southern Asia and belonged to the family of the Great Trek.

Note the rich glow of his darkest of dark chestnut eyes, their oriental slant, the eyebrows that knit together and the high cheek bones. In the profile note the fine nose, a feature so often found in the highest type of Incas and Mayans. With all his Hindu outward resemblance the Inca Indian dominated. His intelligence was shown by his having risen to the rank of a sergeant; thus he did not have to have his head shaved like the common soldier, but he was obliged to share in the general routine which obliged a full bath once a week in a turbulent stream of ice water fresh from the nearby Andean snow.

The Comandante kindly lent me part of his office in which to make my drawing. Orders were constantly being given out from the official desk behind me as orderlies came and went, casting furtive glances at the portrait and winks at their buddy, who was being allowed to sit in the presence of his superior officer and loaf in headquarters and get paid for it. This breaking of military rules in the interest of art brought about a very pleasant camaraderie between the officers, the enlisted men and myself. That my drawing passed their critical inspection and won approval stamped it O. K.

In Bolivia the costumes of the women become the dominant chance for color. It is a royal treat to see an Indian dame billowed in her heavy wool skirts, flounced at the bottom. I say "skirts" for she never takes one off. Every year one of a new hue is added and thus they multiply till she becomes a regular ring-around-a-rosy of color. No subtle shades for my beauty. Take one of the brightest yellow you can imagine; then another of Saint Pat's green; then another of a knock-out cerise; then another of the blue of heaven; then climax with one of Chinese vermilion. Now pile these one above the other and let the wearer lean over or better yet dance and oh, boy! she is a sight to dazzle the eye and puts the poor Indian men into a nervous dither. This labyrinth of color must be very difficult to navigate. No skirt is ever removed. The innermost drop off from sheer exhaustion, leaving only the top band to calendar the annual accession.

The outstanding Indian that I saw while there was one from the Amazon, from Mocomoco,—Augusto Flores (Plate III). He had been brought up from the hot country to work for his *patrón* in La Paz. Lucky I was to get a record of this rare type. Flores also had the Black-Brown

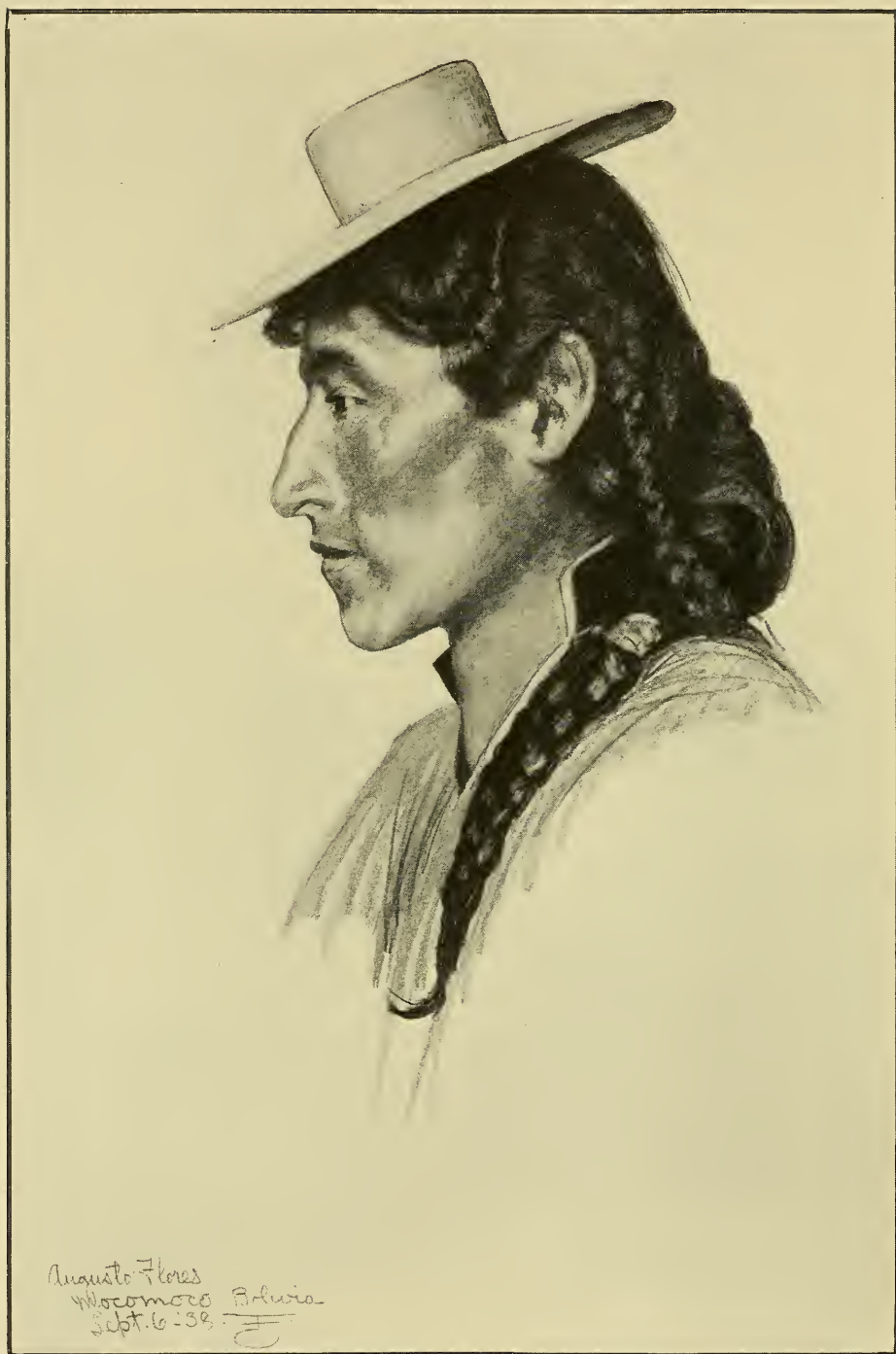


PLATE III.—AUGUSTO FLORES, DRAWN IN LA PAZ, BOLIVIA, BY EBEN F. COMINS

strain of color in his skin. Though small in stature and lady-like in dress he was a he-man and strong as an ox. Even if his hair was done in braids he was no sissy. Strange that in the world today anyone could go about unselfconsciously while so costumed. His saucy little cup and saucer hat could have well graced any Paris milliner's shop and would have sold like hot cakes. It was made of a hard felt pressed into shape. His abnormally high cheek bones and strong nose proved him well bred even if he was of a lowly case. The slight fullness beside his mouth proclaimed him a coca chewer. His hair was his crowning glory. It was unbelievable that a man could wear such a coiffure and get by with it. Like Gaul it was divided into three parts. To put on the hat and hold it in place the top braid was lifted up and a little string that held the hat was passed under it, then the braid put back and joined with the other two at the nape of the neck. Being the Adonis that he was he never touched it himself. It was the duty and privilege of his woman to attend to that, but evidently from its matted condition she partook of coca with her lord and let the world and his hair go by.

The coca leaves are kept in a square bag, slung over the shoulder and held by a broad band; it hangs down under the left arm. These bags are the Indians' prized possession, like the snuffboxes of the 18th century dandies. Into them are woven their finest designs.

The matter of names is confusing, for often the most primitive Indians have been given those of their Spanish *patrones*, thus losing their original racial name. Flores is a good example of this.

In Guatemala another set of Indians almost untouched by civilization lives at San Juan Atitán, an almost inaccessible

spot. Fortunately the Government had brought a group of them to the Feria at Huehuetenango and I went there especially to see them and fifteen other groups from the faraway mountains.

To go to this city means climbing over that backbone range that joins the Rockies to the Andes. The road twists and turns, up the apparently endless mountain climb. No cars pass. Nature is no longer soft. This is the Hard Land. A few shepherds tending their flocks accentuate the cruel loneliness. Mists have stealthily come in around us, closing out all views. How cold it has grown! Oh, for the warmth of the sun. Sun! How could such a smiling force pierce such moistured barriers? It takes a mightier power than the confident Sun to break these veils. Only the unseen can do it.—Wind. Here are its own unbroken areas in which to move. Sweeping up from the great ocean nothing can withstand it; against the mountains it hurls these mists, tearing great holes in them. Its fury spent, there is a lull, through which a dazzling white appears; and the blatant sun bursts forth with subtle mockery, claiming the victor's crown.

A turn in the road, and there is one of the world's great panoramas, the Cuchumatanes Mountains; a complete sweep of vision from extreme left to farthest right; an uninterrupted view showing colors that defy accurate description. These are not our chromoed Rockies with pinkish white snow and whitish pink granite, based by grayish green scattered forests. These are color. The Earth, its orange, red and purple dancing with Nature's yellow, green and blue, singing to the sun.

The Fair grounds were outside the town and there the different tribes lived in separate straw huts placed in a semi-circle in one great oval compound.

From the Atitán group I chose Juan



PLATE IV.—“THE THREE MEN FROM SAN JUAN ATITÁN,” DRAWN IN GUATE-
MALA BY EBEN F. COMINS

Sales and Manuel Godínez for my first drawing (Plate IV). Their skin had the reddish tint associated with the Mayans, but it was darker and also had a slight tinge of the blue-black of the Hindu.

The extreme slant of their eyes and their high cheek bones showed a Mongolian strain. Juan's nose was small, as was his mouth, the chin pointed and weak. The knitted eyebrows were like those of Pelayo Burga of Perú. Manuel's features were similar to Juan's but coarser.

Their clothes were interesting. Long heavy black wool slipovers fringed at the back, hung to the ground, giving them an almost monk-like appearance. Their shirts and shorts were of thick white cotton with stripes of red. Around their heads were tied brilliant crimson wool scarves, striped with narrow bands of orange, sufficiently long so that after being put in place the ends could be twisted into a roll, brought around over the forehead and allowed to cascade down the back to below the knees. It certainly took length to do all this. A similar scarf was tied around the waist as a belt. For a collar more of the same material stuck up about three inches at the back, with the two ends hanging down in front. Note that the left one of Juan's has a pencil-like bit of white sticking out from it. It is not a pencil but a cigarette, a cigarette made of corn husk, paper being too scarce in their faraway mountains.

All men carry at the side, suspended from the right shoulder, a bag similar in use to our ladies' handbags, but being firmly anchored they are not being constantly dropped or left behind.

Juan is shown making such a bag with a heavy needle threaded with coarse handmade string. The making of thread and bags is a constant pastime of all men. It seems to soothe their nerves, as knitting used to our women's.

Manuel sports a *dernier cri* of a hat. He is permitted to wear it as it stamps his official position as a guardian of the law; it is not worn just as a fancy touch of millinery.

He is playing a violin which has three metal strings, a very primitive one, home-made, as is the bow. The music that it makes when augmented by an equally primitive clarinet is most uncommon and I hear phonographic records of it have lately been made. While the violin is a Spanish importation, the "airs" played by these faraway people have a weird haunting quality. Though repetitious and monotonous they are not at all oriental and have a distinctive character of their own. Could they be handdowns from early Mayan times? Certainly it was a rare experience to have heard them.

After finishing the two front men I found I had an empty space in the right corner. To fill it up I tried putting in a suggestion of an adobe wall, something appropriate to the subjects; but I was not satisfied and took it all out.

Francisco, brother of Manuel, solved the problem for me by coming to see what was going on and what the white man, who had appeared among them, was doing that was of sufficient importance to pay them liberally for sitting still and doing nothing. Like a flash I had him sit in the back and the hole was immediately filled, filled this time with a living meaning. He, the rogue that he was, performed like an actor, adding his merry and lusty smile. This is the first time any of this tribe had been recorded by a drawing. It is thought that even photographs had not been taken of them.

For Number III, the Yellow-Brown People, or Chinese type, I found the best example in Palopó, also in Guatemala. Palopó is one of the strangest villages I saw in all my travels. Its little straw-thatched huts cling for their very existence to the

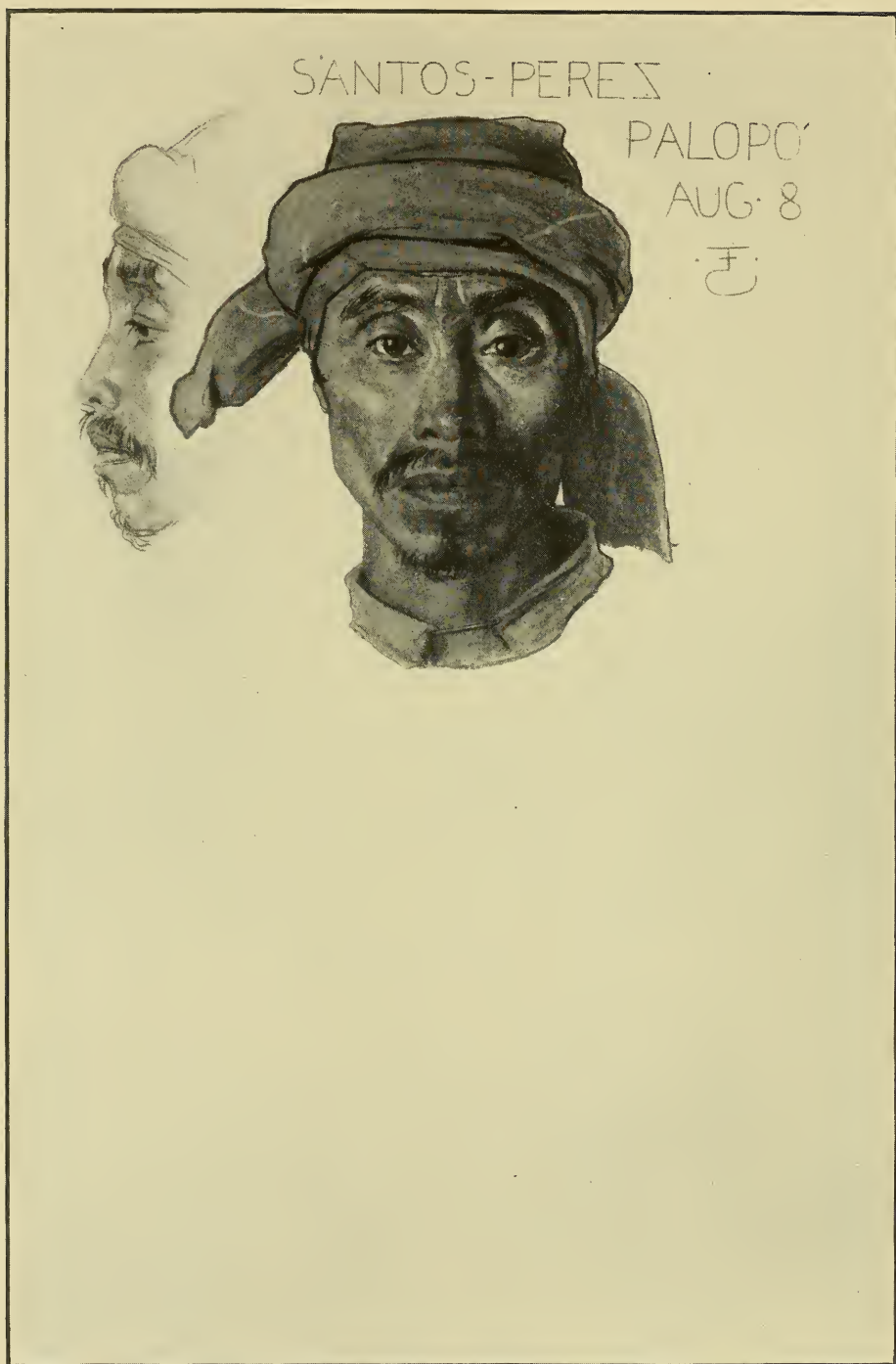


PLATE V.—SANTOS PÉREZ, DRAWN IN PALOPÓ, GUATEMALA, BY EBEN F. COMINS

sides of a precipitous cliff rising from the lake of lakes, Atitlán, which is in the heart of the country and not, like Atitán, in the faraway mountains. Here it seems as if Nature, out of compassion for tearing the earth asunder and piling up volcanoes upon volcanoes, had placed, as a peace offering, this smile of cooling waters. As if this was not enough, she has reserved this paradise for the supreme pageant of color. Nowhere else does she perform such miracles of breath-taking chromatic scales from dawn to dawn. From fields of richest greens, across mirrors of emeralds and sapphires she plays the gamut of sunset fires, until frantic lightnings gash angled cracks of blinding white through purple blackness.

In Palopó, which is part of the world of color, I found Santos Pérez (Plate V). His costume was unusual, a slip-over of black wool which hung to his knees. Under it was a pair of white and red striped cotton shorts; the sleeves were of the same. The outstanding feature was the roll of bright crimson wool tied around his head with the ends projecting like two great ears. His face, front and profile, is a

perfect example of the Chinese. The slanting eyes, with deep lids, the high cheek bones above the square jowls and the thin wisps of black hair proclaim him a descendant of the old world.

The explanation given for so many perfect specimens was that they could easily be the products of a Chinese immigration, not one of recent years but harking back to the sixteenth century when the Spanish fathers frequently crossed to the Philippines and could have brought the Chinese back as they did silk. I do not agree with this and believe that undoubtedly this yellow blood antedates the Christian importation and goes back to the Mongolian ancestors of the Great Trek.

It is from the point of view of the antiquity of these races that, as an artist, I studied and made drawings of their living descendants of today.

Constantly I saw all over these four countries, Mexico, Guatemala, Perú and Bolivia, Indians whose features showed that they were descendants of the races that had trekked in early times from Asia to our Continent, that had flowered into the great Maya and Inca civilizations.

General Anastasio Somoza, President of Nicaragua, Visits the United States

UPON INVITATION of the President of the United States, General Anastasio Somoza, President of Nicaragua, arrived in Washington on May 5 for an official visit to this country. He and his party, consisting of Sra. de Somoza, Dr. Manuel Cordero Reyes, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and aides, were met at the station by President and Mrs. Roosevelt and an official reception committee composed of the Vice President, Cabinet members, Senators, Representatives, Army, Navy, and Marine Corps officials, and their wives, and Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union.

As the party left the station, a salute of 21 guns was fired and the Marine Band played the Nicaraguan and United States National anthems. The Presidential party, escorted by a detachment of cavalry and 30 tanks, while "flying fortresses" and pursuit planes thundered above, then drove through flag-bedecked streets lined with cheering crowds.

At the White House, members of the diplomatic corps and their wives were waiting to be presented to President and Sra. de Somoza before the informal luncheon enjoyed by the two families.

In the afternoon the President of Nicaragua and his party drove to Mt. Vernon and Arlington Cemetery, where President Somoza deposited wreaths at Washington's Tomb and the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier.

That evening, an official banquet and reception was given by President Roose-

velt, and the following day President and Sra. de Somoza left the White House for the Nicaraguan Legation, where they stayed for the remainder of their six-day visit in Washington. Other entertainments for the President of Nicaragua and Sra. de Somoza included a splendid reception at the Pan American Union by the Minister of Nicaragua and Sra. de Bayle on May 6; an official luncheon by the Secretary of State and Mrs. Hull on May 7; a visit to Congress on May 8; and a luncheon by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union on May 10.

President Somoza was received by the Senate at noon, and after being welcomed by Vice President John Nance Garner, spoke to the Senate as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT, AND MEMBERS OF THE SENATE OF
THE UNITED STATES:

It is a source of very deep satisfaction to me to have the privilege of being received by this distinguished legislative body.

I appreciate most particularly the kind words of welcome of your Honorable President, Mr. Garner, and I feel I should not decline his courteous invitation—which I consider an honor—to address you on this occasion.

I take pleasure in extending to each and every one of the members of the Senate a most cordial personal greeting; and I wish to convey, through you, to the American people, the warmest expressions of friendship and understanding on the part of the Government and the people of Nicaragua.

Recently, in a memorable ceremony, the highest representatives of the various branches of your Government gathered under the dome of this same Capitol to commemorate the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the first Congress of the United States under the Constitution.

The American people, on that occasion, paid a just tribute of admiration and gratitude to the founders of this great nation, whose wisdom and patriotism, in the midst of the misfortunes and uncertainties of the period, established the fundamental principles of American democracy, as set forth in your great Constitution and its Bill of Rights.

We, your neighbors to the South, felt that the commemoration of this anniversary was not foreign to the history of the development of our life as independent nations. It is well known that our founders, in establishing our Republics, adopted in substance your democratic representative form of government, as being the most adequate to



LUNCHEON OF THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION IN HONOR
OF THE PRESIDENT OF NICARAGUA

On May 10, 1939, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union held a special session in honor of General Anastasio Somoza, President of Nicaragua, after which he was the guest of honor at a luncheon in the Hall of Heroes.

insure the well-being and prosperity of free peoples.

From their inception this fortunate circumstance has established, between the young Latin American republics and the United States, a similarity of governmental institutions, based on a common devotion to the democratic ideals which we have been able to preserve in spite of the vicissitudes of Time and the characteristics peculiar to each people.

The American nations have recently reaffirmed their staunch determination to preserve this heritage of our ancestors.

With a full realization of the difference in our relative capacity, I wish to state that we, the nations smallest in size, are ready, to the limit of our ability, to share with you, the greatest and most powerful, all the efforts and sacrifices involved in the collective task of keeping our American institutions free from any interference foreign to our Continent and to our ideology.

As a result of conscious efforts carried out over a long period of years by our statesmen and peoples, in spite of mistakes and temporary friction, a sentiment of collective solidarity, mutual respect, and reciprocal cooperation has been created which happily now prevails in inter-American relations.

If the advances of Pan Americanism were slow in the past, all the greater should be our satisfaction in observing the rapid progress achieved in recent years.

It is a fact—and I do not need to emphasize it—that the prudent, wise, and sagacious “Good Neighbor Policy”, inaugurated and maintained with such success by your illustrious President, Franklin D. Roosevelt, has given a vigorous impulse to the movement for Pan-American rapprochement.

This policy has been a powerful factor in uniting the minds of the whole Continent in one spiritual and moral entity. The Latin American republics are now approaching the United States cordially, with greater confidence, in an attitude of spontaneous cooperation, and with the same sentiments of friendship that they feel toward their other sister republics.

My presence in this country, and the generous hospitality that your Government has offered me, are a living testimonial to the truth of this assertion.

Under these happy auspices, Pan Americanism is no longer a romantic formula of international policy. It now represents a doctrine of constructive action which takes into consideration the political as well as the economic and cultural aspects of harmonious relationships.

The new spirit which governs the affairs of the Western Hemisphere was given concrete form at the Conferences at Montevideo, Buenos Aires, and Lima. These Conferences established well-defined bases for the inter-American order, setting forth as fundamental principles of our Continental organization: the juridical equality of treatment and of opportunity in international trade; and the determination to defend the integrity of our territory and of our institutions, against any foreign action or interference whatsoever.

This is the gospel of peace and freedom, which the Americas, with the powerful assistance of the United States, presents to a troubled world. Small though its contribution may be, the Nicaraguan people is, nevertheless, as proud as any other of its coöperation in these fundamental achievements.

Because of her geographic position, and the fortunate configuration of her territory, Nicaragua, in spite of her size, will be called upon to be a complementary factor, indispensable to any plan or combination of forces for the security and defense of this Continent. Her territory offers a convenient route for the construction of an inter-oceanic canal.

The Nicaraguan people consider this fact as their most valuable source of potential prosperity. We earnestly desire that this gift of nature may not be left hidden indefinitely in our native forests, when, by the act of man, it could bring incalculable benefits to ourselves, to you, to the Americas as a whole, and to the commerce of the world.

By a treaty which we are willing to carry through in terms which conform to the interests of both parties, on permanent bases of equity and justice, the United States has long been associated with Nicaragua in the possible realization of this mighty undertaking. We have thus joined our international destiny to yours, confident that this association will always be maintained in an atmosphere of reciprocal amity, of mutual benefits, and of a real comprehension of the needs and character of both nations. Those who are now engaged, as I am, whole-heartedly in the consolidation of this association of our destinies, firmly believe that, when History records its judgment on future events, posterity will not betray our present hopes and convictions.

Half an hour later President Somoza was received by the House of Representatives, and to Speaker William B. Bankhead's address of welcome he replied:

MR. SPEAKER AND MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES:

Permit me to express my extreme gratification on being present at this session of the House of Representatives of the United States, where I have been so warmly welcomed.

You may be assured that the people of Nicaragua will duly appreciate this act, which in itself demonstrates the existence of a robust international democracy among the nations of this hemisphere.

In fact, the conversations I have just had with President Roosevelt, in an atmosphere of perfect cordiality and frankness, and the reception accorded me today by both Houses of Congress, show the effective practice of the principles the American nations have enunciated on various occasions, to guide their conduct in the development of their mutual relations.

Actually, at this time, we are offering the light of a consoling hope to a world in turmoil; for it is encouraging to witness the friendly meeting of the chief executives of two countries—so unequal in size and material resources—to discuss the coordination of their common interests on a basis of equity and reciprocal understanding. This can only be explained by a triumph of the principles of mutual respect and cooperation, which constitute the one firm basis for peace, prosperity and security among nations.

In the formation of this American spirit, not only human forces capable of making history have intervened, but also the inevitable influence of natural factors, such as the continuity of territory, its isolation by the two greatest oceans, and other factors which contribute to give the Americas the characteristics of a well-defined entity.

Under the influence of these forces and other contributory circumstances, a certain consciousness of international solidarity became manifest when the American peoples began their struggle for independence and liberty. This found its emotional and theoretical expression in the desires and principles formulated by just and far-sighted statesmen—desires and principles instinctively accepted by the people, later put into practice in the great events of our struggle for freedom.

As a consequence, no action, policy or doctrine of the American peoples could be in the past—nor can be in the future—absolutely individualistic or isolating. In this sense, the substance of your Monroe Doctrine is the binding of the security of the United States to that of the other American nations. It is true that you proclaimed this doctrine for your own protection; but it is also

true that it has rendered meritorious service to your neighbors of the South.

It is undeniable that the lofty spirit which has guided inter-American relations has at times been discouraged or ignored; but these episodes, natural in every important human process, have been transitory and do not diminish the nobility of the general picture of progress.

Outstanding in this picture are: the adoption by the American nations of a cooperative and liberal commercial policy; the acknowledgment, in existing treaties, of the principle of non-intervention; the recognition of the solidarity of the American States, made by the Resolution of Buenos Aires in 1936, and the Declaration of Lima in 1938; the determination to make this solidarity effective in defending the material and spiritual integrity of the Americas; and the declaration that inter-American cooperation is an indispensable condition for the maintenance of the aforementioned principles in this hemisphere.

When the panorama of such an international order is contemplated, pride on our part is fully justified.

The question now arises of discovering how we can perfect that order of relationship which is so essential and suitable to the needs of each and every one of our countries. Solidarity—which in the Americas is a result of circumstances rather than an artificial creation—compels us to consider the misfortune of one of our nations as the misfortune of all. But solidarity also means that the material and spiritual well-being of each of us is of interest and of benefit to all. Active cooperation thus becomes the fruitful corollary of interdependence. It is therefore in an effective cooperation, and not merely in the romantic expression of sentiments of solidarity, that we should look for the practical sense and true value of Pan Americanism.

And now, may I take this opportunity to remind you that Nicaragua made a valuable contribution to the security of the Americas a long time ago. That was when she determined to share the advantages of her geographical configuration, offering a transit route between both oceans, *only* in collaboration with the nations of this Continent. It is fitting to note also that in the development of this policy of effective cooperation, Nicaragua—more than a quarter of a century ago—signed a treaty with the United States, for the purpose of ceding optional rights to the construction of an interoceanic canal across her territory; and for other objectives relating to *your* defense, which is likewise our own.

I hope that the importance of this contribution of Nicaragua to the security of the Americas will be duly considered and appreciated in a readjustment of our relations so that the benefits and advantages of the most valuable natural resource of my country—precisely the one that can exercise the greatest influence on her development and progress—may not be nullified.

The strongest basis for these hopes rests upon President Roosevelt's "Good Neighbor" policy. Inspired by a profound sense of fitness, this policy not only embodies the elements proper to any honorable relationship, but also the most effective means of solving, in peaceful and cordial collaboration, the great problems of common interest. And in its practical application, it shows that our countries—whether they be large or small—can be considered today as an association of free nations, organized under a system that insures to each of them due attention to the needs of their existence and of their progress. If further proof were needed, my visit to this country, and the warm reception you have given me, supplies it.

These happy circumstances therefore lead us to believe that perhaps the high mission of the Americas is to offer to mankind an example of the feasibility of a life based on freedom and humanitarianism. Your nation has already undertaken the leading role which belongs to you in this common task. Without forgetting that Nicaragua's material possibilities are limited, you may be sure that my country will omit no effort or sacrifice in order to contribute her share in the wide field of spiritual action.

And so—with my heart filled with confidence in the nobility of human destiny, let me salute, through their representatives, the people of this great nation.

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union met to do honor to the Chief Executive of one of the member countries. Secretary of State Cordell Hull, chairman of the Board, welcomed President Somoza in these words:

MR. PRESIDENT.

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union has assembled in special session today to do honor to Your Excellency and to the country over whose destinies you so ably preside. On behalf of the Board permit me to extend to you the warmest possible welcome and to assure you

of our very sincere wishes for the progress and prosperity of the people of Nicaragua.

It is entirely fitting that we should gather here to do honor to the chief of state of a country which has at all times collaborated loyally and whole-heartedly in the work of the Pan American Union and has always stood ready to do its full part as a member of the American family of nations. We wish to avail ourselves of this occasion, Mr. President, to express our very sincere appreciation for the contribution which Nicaragua has consistently made in the furtherance of the ideals of Pan Americanism.

We are confident that under Your Excellency's wise guidance Nicaragua is destined to play an increasingly important role in the future development of closer and more friendly relations between the American nations.

President Somoza acknowledged the greeting as follows:

MR. CHAIRMAN:

MEMBERS OF THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION:

I am sincerely grateful for the honor you pay me in holding this special session. Your words of friendly welcome to me, Mr. Chairman, and your complimentary expressions concerning the Government of which I am the head have made a deep and lasting impression upon me.

There is no better opportunity than the present to express the satisfaction and pride with which we should contemplate the progress realized in the relations between our peoples and governments. We can well say, without fear of exaggeration, that we on this Continent have succeeded in laying the foundations for an association of nations, organized on the basis of liberty, solidarity, and cooperation; history, even in its most successful periods, has never recorded a like organization of similar importance. Indeed, the supreme value of the Pan American Union lies in the humane enthusiasm that has ever inspired it. Institutions created to serve and aid free men, under the rule of justice, and international action founded on respect for sovereignty and practical cooperation, are distinctive characteristics that, I am glad to say, are increasingly evident in the life of the nations of this hemisphere. The successful example and, at the same time, the hope that we can offer to humanity, reside in the fact that, with such a noble aim, nations differing widely in size and resources have been able to live and progress together.

In this meritorious organization, yours, gentlemen of the Governing Board, is the task of main-

taining a permanent and sedulous cooperation with the Inter-American Conferences, with technical organizations, and with governments. It gives me special pleasure to say that your wise, prudent, and effective cooperation has been and is duly appreciated by the Government of Nicaragua, as I am sure it is by the governments of all our sister republics. I consider it only just to commend your work to the gratitude of our nations.

Permit me to mention also, as outstanding for devotion to the Pan American ideal, the work of your distinguished Director General, Dr. Rowe.

In repeating to you, gentlemen of the Governing Board, my thanks for this tribute, I wish also to bear witness to my profound faith in the brilliant future of the Pan American Union, which is called upon to play a noble part in the development of civilization.

Following the special session, a luncheon in President Somoza's honor was given by the Board in the Hall of Patriots of the Pan American Union.

During his stay in Washington, General Somoza visited many other places of varied interest, including the University of Maryland, the National Agricultural Research Center at Beltsville, and the Marine Barracks at Quantico, Virginia. He also made a brief trip to New York and the World's Fair, and then returned to the capital.

On May 22, at a simple ceremony at the White House, the two Presidents ex-



Photograph by Wide World Photos, Inc.

GENERAL SOMOZA AND PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AT THE WHITE HOUSE

Notes agreeing on various methods of cooperation between the United States and Nicaragua were signed by the two presidents on May 22. Those standing are, from left to right: The Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States; the Hon. Henry Morgenthau, Secretary of the Treasury of the United States; the Hon. Manuel Cordero Reyes, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Nicaragua; and the Hon. León De Bayle, Minister of Nicaragua to the United States.

changed notes formulating a plan of cooperation and setting forth a program of financial and technical assistance.

After thanking President Roosevelt, in his own name and that of Nicaragua, for the many attentions he had received in Washington, President Somoza said in his note: "We in Nicaragua have faith and confidence in our strength and ability to develop our country, to improve our agricultural possibilities, our mines and our small industries, to raise the standard of living, and to advance our cultural attainments. But we realize that in an age of increasing specialization and interdependence we can utilize advantageously the counsel and friendly assistance of our neighbors, just as our aid and cooperation is useful to them. In this spirit of mutual helpfulness, I have thought it desirable to set forth certain of the objectives of my Government of interest to the United States, in order to ascertain the possibilities of cooperation in our common benefit."

Specific suggestions for United States aid that would be welcome in Nicaragua included the following: engineering assistance in a project for the canalization of the San Juan River for vessels of moderate draft and if possible, a complementary waterway from Lake Nicaragua to the Pacific; engineering advice and supervision in the construction of certain roads and the extension of credit facilities to finance the purchase from United States manufacturers of equipment and materials not available in Nicaragua; the extension of credit in United States dollars to the National Bank of Nicaragua; cooperation in the study and development of non-competitive agricultural products that would complement the production of and find a market in the United States; and an

arrangement by which a qualified officer of the United States Army might be detailed to act as director of the Military Academy and a qualified aviation officer as instructor in the Air Corps of the National Guard.

In his letter President Roosevelt stated that the United States Army Engineer Corps has been instructed to make the necessary studies and surveys of a canalization and highway project to link the eastern and western regions of Nicaragua, and as soon as the necessary financial arrangements can be made in this country, a board of six officers will be sent to Nicaragua; the United States Government will cooperate in the construction of certain highways in Nicaragua, and the Export-Import Bank will assist in arranging credits of as much as \$2,000,000 to finance the purchase of equipment and materials for these and other productive projects; the same bank will also grant certain credits not to exceed \$500,000 at any one time, and to be utilized prior to June 30, 1941, to facilitate the payment of commercial obligations to United States nationals and concerns and eliminate unusual fluctuations in the rate of exchange of the córdoba; legislation has already been enacted authorizing the loan of government experts to assist in specialized agricultural studies, and suitable provisions are under consideration to enable the Government to undertake surveys of agricultural resources in foreign countries and assist in the development of non-competitive products; and the Department of War has agreed to assign a qualified officer to act as director of the Military Academy of the Nicaraguan National Guard, and arrangements will be made for him to study the projected establishment of a military aviation school.

All Aboard!

American Republics at the New York World's Fair

IN TURNING over your Sunday paper, you have doubtless paused many times at the alluring advertisements of cruises—15 days to the Caribbean or Mexico City; 16 days to the northern ports of South America; 38 days to Peru with a trip to Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Incas; 38 days to Buenos Aires and return, stopping at Rio and Montevideo; or 39 days (or more depending on the stopovers you wish to make) through the Panama Canal to Peru and Chile, across the Andes and up the east coast. Sometimes it is the cost that gives you pause and prevents you from immediately taking a ticket to the other Americas. Often you stay home because a vacation of eleven days, three weeks, five weeks, six weeks, three months or longer is impossible at the time.

Now those who have longed to sail away to the sister republics of the Americas have their opportunity to become better acquainted with them at the San Francisco and New York World's Fairs. In New York, nine countries in one day for \$0.75—Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, Venezuela! That is a bargain no cruise advertisement has ever offered. However, it would be better to say nine countries for \$1.50, for two days can be pleasantly spent wandering through the fascinating pavilions, looking at the exhibits, listening to the music played by Chilean cowboys or other foreign orchestras, savoring the exotic flavors of Venezuelan icecream, having a cold drink or hot Brazilian coffee,

sampling the famous Argentine and Chilean wines, or dining on dishes beloved in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, or Venezuela.

Argentina

Entering the Fair by the Flushing Gate or taking a bus there from another entrance you will come first to the Argentine Pavilion, on Presidential Row South. In front of it is a small pool and at the side a little garden with grass and trees and a most charming statue of Pan by the Argentine sculptor Fioravanti. It will be surprising if some American does not try to keep this for his own garden. The façade of the building is decorated with a 40-foot pictorial map in colored tile.

Argentina has presented in an elegant and distinguished manner a cross-section of its national life. The visitor who has had the pleasure of being in Buenos Aires—a metropolis four times as big as Washington—immediately feels as if he were walking along Calle Florida, the most fashionable shopping thoroughfare, where show windows holding beautiful wares are interspersed with art exhibits and large book-stores.

Along the approach to the pavilion doorway are cases filled with handsome Argentine luggage; gloves; the most valued of the traditional ponchos, woven of vicuña wool and so fine it seems as if, like the fabled silk robe, they could be slipped through a ring; the bolas once whirled by the gaucho to entangle the feet of the animal he was pursuing, and the silver-mounted whip and knife, part of his accouterments.

Inside the main hall you will find a mural at each end, one of a gaucho, corn

It is regretted that photographs of the Argentine and Mexican Pavilions did not arrive in time for publication in this issue. They will appear in August.—EDITOR.

and sheep, the other of industry. One long side has a great photograph of the pampa, framed by real grains and hides; opposite is a map of Argentina superimposed on one of the world, with lines of light running out to Great Britain, the United States, France, Belgium, Germany and the Orient, and a sentence proclaiming, "We trade with all the world." Flags indicate the order of importance of other nations in Argentine exports (United Kingdom, Germany, United States, Belgium and France) and imports (United Kingdom, United States, Germany, Italy and Belgium).

Many pictures will show you what a metropolis Buenos Aires is, and colored slides of the great Nahuel Huapí National Park in the south will cause you to linger at the vision of its lakes and Andine peaks. (Why not try a winter vacation at the fine hotel there? You know it is summer in Argentina when it snows in the United States.)

Undoubtedly you have heard of Argentine corn, wheat, linseed, beef, and wool, but perhaps you haven't realized that Argentina makes 89 percent of its silk textiles—and what luscious fabrics! Woolen goods too, fur coats, perfumes, silverware, medicines and toilet goods, and fine glassware, to mention only a few manufactures.

Argentina, proud of its schools, gives figures on university and vocational education, and tells you that it has the highest percentage of normal school students of any country in the world, in proportion to population. It is justly proud too that of every twelve babies who would have died if the 1915 mortality rate had continued seven were saved in 1937. And the sharply ascending lines on another chart show how more and more women have since 1895 become teachers of modern languages, commercial, industrial, and college subjects, and physical education, and have entered agricultural, library, and social service schools.

Beyond the main hall there is a small art gallery containing about 20 choice paintings, with a few sculptures and prints, equally good. As you emerge from this gallery you find a newspaper hall containing copies of the Buenos Aires dailies (two of which rank among the great newspapers of the world), some of the many magazines published in Argentina, and also the provincial newspapers. Above them are some gay frescoes of Argentine life in earlier days. Beyond this little hall is a small motion picture theater where films of Argentina and its life are shown at frequent intervals. Near by is the library, where some hundreds of Argentine books are alluringly arranged on open shelves as if in a home, and a reading table invites you to linger. At the entrance *de luxe* editions are on display in a glass case; Argentina has a renowned publishing industry. At the side is the restaurant, called the Martín Fierro Room in honor of a gaucho famous in Argentine legends, where national dishes and wine are served.

Mexico

The Mexican Pavilion in the Hall of Nations faces the Court of Peace but may be entered from its rear door almost opposite the Argentine Pavilion. The wonderful story of Mexico's prehistoric past is presented through magnificent original archeological objects brought from the museum in Mexico City and by reproductions. At one side towers a reproduction of the great Aztec calendar stone, which has been deciphered sufficiently to astonish everyone at the astronomical progress achieved before the coming of the white man. The famous Coiled Serpent, one of the admirations of modern sculptors, is here for you to see. In one corner is a reproduction of a tomb at Monté Alban near Oaxaca, where the famous jewels were found, and Maya



Brasilfoto

PAN AMERICAN UNION PAVILION

The flags of the twenty-one American Republics wave together at the doorway.

columns and Zapotec objects help to show the diverse artistry of the early Mexicans, handed down so richly to their present-day descendants. Large photographs of the pyramids at San Juan Teotihuacán and models of other monuments lend added interest to the room.

Figures in wax, about 18 inches high, by

Carmen Carrillo de Antúnez of the Anthropological Department of the Polytechnic Institute represent three dances of the Yaqui and Zapotec Indians. Each of the many figures is clad in an authentic costume with complete headdress and posed for a figure of the dance. This piece of scientific research is typical of

with you one of the stunning copper trays, typical dolls, or the reproductions of paintings that are on sale, and don't forget some of the numerous travel pamphlets to help you plan your trip. Your car will carry you to Mexico as well as to New York; try the fine highway from Laredo to Mexico City.

Pan American Union

Proceeding along Presidential Row South you will soon come to the Pan American Union Pavilion in the Pan American Wing. It is easily recognizable by the flags of the twenty-one American Republics flying in an arch at its door. Inside you will find a large illuminated relief map of the Americas on which you may trace your real or imaginary trip. Publications of the Pan American Union are on sale and the representatives of the Pan American Union in attendance will be delighted to answer your questions about it and its member countries. Colombia, Guatemala and Haiti also intend to exhibit in this room.

Dominican Republic

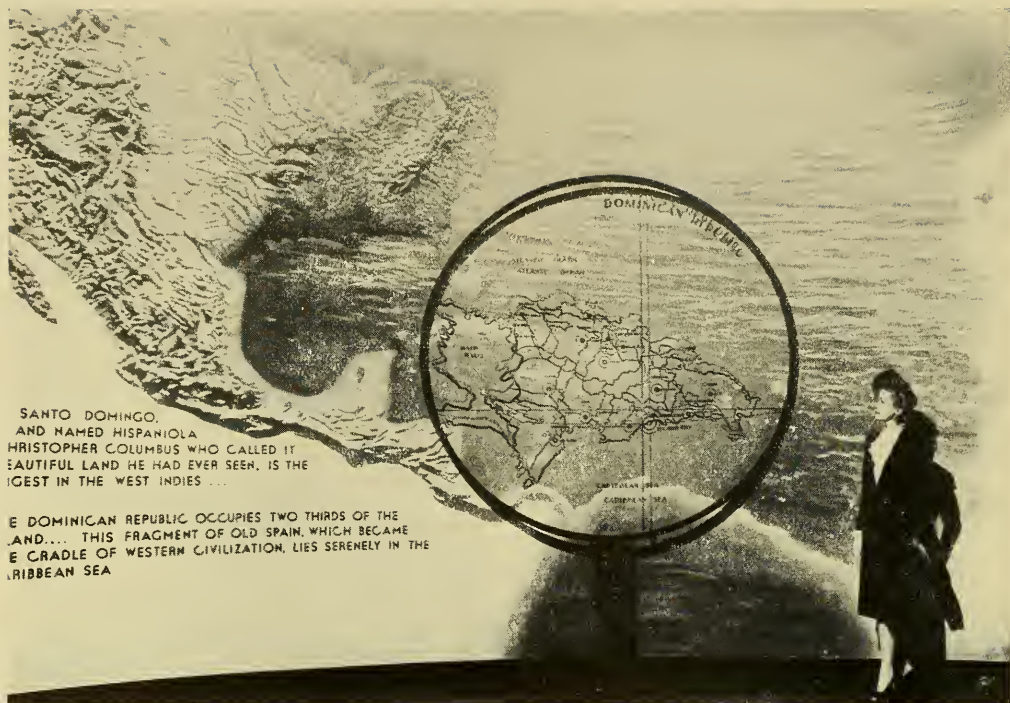
A few doors farther is the entrance to the Dominican Pavilion, where you will be cordially welcomed by pretty Dominican girls eager to escort you through the building. The capital of the Dominican Republic, now called Ciudad Trujillo but formerly known as Santo Domingo, is the oldest European settlement in the New World. Columbus discovered the island now shared by the Dominican Republic and Haiti in 1492, and such was his fondness for Hispaniola, as he named it, that he requested in his will that he should be buried in the city that his brother had founded in 1496. A huge photomural of Dominican scenes and a map showing the location of the Dominican Republic are the introduction to the Columbus Hall, containing models of some of the famous ancient

buildings in the Dominican capital. One represents the beautiful cathedral, the oldest in America (begun in 1523) where the bones of Columbus rest and men still worship; another, the church of the Dominican order built in 1520, which was the seat of the first university in the Western Hemisphere. Every tourist visits the massive ruins of the palace built by Diego, Columbus' son, when he was viceroy; the model will tell you how magnificent it was, worthy of the palaces left behind in old Spain. Pictures from some of the books of Columbus' own day will amuse you by the extravagance of the artists' conceptions; the Americas were great news—as they still are today! Celebrating mass on the back of a whale seemed not impossible in these marvelous seas.

As you go upstairs you look down as from an airplane on a model of the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse, ceremoniously unveiled in the Court of Peace on June 18. This lighthouse is to be erected in Ciudad Trujillo by all the nations of America as a memorial to the Discoverer of this continent. Near the model stands a marble bust of Columbus by Aristide Fortunato.

Archaeological objects from the government museum, including a perfect large bowl and small twin figures, a sign of good luck, recall pre-Columbian days, while exhibits of salt, copper, marble and amber (when you go to the Dominican Republic you will find amber beads to buy), coffee, cacao, peanuts, rice, tapioca, wood, tobacco and sugar indicate lively business activities of today. On the second floor there is furniture of the beautiful Dominican mahogany as well as many other interesting exhibits. A leaping game fish will enthrall anglers.

A feature of the opening of the Dominican Pavilion was the announcement that the Republic had established an annual award of \$50,000 for the outstanding con-



WHERE THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC IS

Christopher Columbus, who discovered the island of which the Dominican Republic occupies two thirds, called it the most beautiful land he had ever seen and named it Hispaniola—Little Spain.



A RENAISSANCE DOORWAY IN THE DOMINICAN PAVILION

The pavilion was opened by the Hon. Andrés Pastoriza, Dominican Minister to the United States. Señor Virgilio Álvarez del Pino, president of the Dominican delegation to the Fair, Charles H. Wanzer, Dominican Commissioner General to the Fair, and Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, President of Columbia University, were among the other speakers.

A MARLIN POINTS THE WAY
TO THE DOMINICAN RE-
PUBLIC

Tropical fish in the aquarium will
catch the eye of anglers.



THE COLUMBUS MEMORIAL
LIGHTHOUSE

In 1942, if all goes well, you will
have this view of the lighthouse when
you arrive in the Dominican Repub-
lic by air. The American countries
plan to build it in commemoration
of the 450th anniversary of the dis-
covery of America.



Courtesy of ABC News Service



Courtesy of Manuel J. Puente

A CUBAN SCENE BY DOMINGO RAMOS

The artist is seen standing beside his richly colored mural, which greets the visitor entering the Cuban Pavilion. The Hon. Pedro Martínez Fraga, Ambassador of Cuba to the United States, made an address at the opening of the Pavilion on May 20, the Cuban national holiday. Dr. J. M. García Montes, Secretary of Agriculture, and Dr. Luis Machado, High Commissioner, also spoke.

tribution to the cause of international peace. The first award will be made on October 24, 1939.

A special issue of *The Dominican Republic*, published in New York under the auspices of the Dominican Chamber of Commerce of the United States, will give you more information about that country and its exhibits.

Cuba

The tropical scene painted in lively colors by Domingo Ramos that greets you as you enter the Cuban Pavilion next door is in contrast to the pleasant temperature provided by air-cooling. At the right side the colorful shields of the nation and its six provinces preside over the display.

Cuba offers some beautiful samples of feminine handwork. A famous dressmaker, Ana María Borrero, exhibits six delight-

fully dressed brides in the styles of the decades from 1830-1880, showing that her charming new models, also on view, are designed on a sound foundation of familiarity with the fashions of the past. Other famous Cuban dressmakers—men—likewise show some of their latest models, displayed, like Señorita Borrero's, on attractive mannequins made in Cuba. The exquisite silk spreads, lingerie and other garments made in orphan asylums and other institutions or at home bear witness to the taste and patience of Cuban girls and women.

At the right of the entrance is the notable Riverón collection of archaeological objects of various pre-Columbian cultures, now owned by Manuel Casadilla. Carved bone articles with mother of pearl inlay, bowls, quartz amulets and two complete



Courtesy of Manuel J. Puente

CUBAN EXHIBITS

Above: Cuban sugar plantation and mill. Cuba shows graphically in this diorama the steps in her greatest industry, from cutting the cane in the fields to its manufacture in the mill. Below: Models by Cuban fashion designers. One woman and several men have exhibits of fashions in the Cuban Pavilion. Fine handwork distinguishes many of the gowns.

skulls are among the many fascinating objects in this collection.

Farther along the corridor you will see two excellent dioramas. The one of a sugar plantation with its mill shows the sugar cane as it grows, is cut, loaded on carts and transported to the mill, and also depicts the homes of the owner, overseers and workers. This fine diorama of Cuba's leading industry was made by Varona. The other represents a coffee plantation against a background of some of the beautiful Cuban mountains. An illuminated map shows where the most famous Cuban tobacco grows. Everyone realizes that Cuba produces sugar, tobacco and rum but not everyone is aware that it also has mines of manganese and other minerals, and thirty or forty different fine woods.

In a corner is a little shop selling hand-made dolls of Cuban types, attractive novelty jewelry (which on close scrutiny is found to be made of seeds), and handsome bags and belts of the finest and softest crocodile leather.

Upstairs is a particularly attractive air-conditioned restaurant and bar. Passing a large photomural of Cuban scenes, you take a seat on one of the calf-skin chairs. Before you is a breezy marine view painted on the wall beyond the prow of a vessel of rich dark wood, whose cannon make you think of the pirates that once infested the Spanish Main. Perhaps there isn't anything exactly like this in Habana, but you'll probably want to go down and see. The food and drink that come across the ship's rail will prove another inducement.



Courtesy of Manuel J. Puente

THE SHOP IN THE CUBAN PAVILION

Small figures representing native types, novelty jewelry, and beautiful bags of crocodile leather are on sale here.



Courtesy of L. N. Ponce

THE ECUADOREAN PAVILION

Over the doorway of the pavilion, opened by the High Commissioner, Señor L. N. Ponce, and Señor S. E. Durán-Ballén, Consul General in New York, is a decorative panel by the Ecuadorean artist Camilio Egas.

You will enjoy taking home with you the well illustrated booklet on Cuba, its life and many attractions.

Ecuador

Passing in front of the Federal Building to Presidential Row South you come to the pavilion of Ecuador, which has the same

relative position as that of Cuba. The large tawny plaster panel over the door from which shines a symbolic sun is the work of the modern Ecuadorean artist, Camilio Egas, as is also the huge mural of Indians at the back of the interior. The central figure represents the vigor of the natives engaged in agricultural activities on



Courtesy of Luis Alzamora

THE PERUVIAN PAVILION

The Hon. Manuel de Freyre y Santander, Ambassador of Peru to the United States, said on opening the Peruvian Pavilion that it offered a miniature reproduction of what Peru was and is, and that the present progress of his country is not solely material but also cultural and sociological. Señor Luis M. Alzamora is High Commissioner to the Fair.

the high and fertile plateaus of the Andes. These natives are the descendants of advanced civilizations that were found by the Spaniards in America. To the left is visualized the hard work of the past to which the natives were submitted in the Andes, as were the slaves of North America. To the right is shown the romance of agricultural life. The free native of today, to whom the Republic has granted full rights, is portrayed harvesting his crop to the rhythm of music.

Your boy who is always buying balsa wood to make his model airplanes will find that Ecuador is the chief source of this, the lightest wood known, and that it is also used in life preservers.

Probably you will be too late to see a wonderful toquilla hat, especially woven for President Roosevelt by a mother and daughter who spent five months at the task, and put on the finishing touches at the Fair. Indeed, you may wonder as you read this what a toquilla hat is. Unfortunately these hats, in which Ecuador excels, are familiarly and erroneously known as Panama hats, because of the fact that Panama was long a center for their distribution. They are made from palm fiber, and when you go on your real trip to the west coast of South America you can buy them in Guayaquil or from the dealers who come on board while the ship is anchored off shore at Manta to load a cargo of hats and the vegetable ivory (tagua) nuts from which we make buttons and similar objects. Montecristi, where the finest hats are woven, lies inland from Manta.

Small carved figures of native types, the beautiful carved frame holding the President's photograph, and paintings by several well known artists testify to the fact that the country is still an art center, as it was in colonial days when its magnificent churches were erected, the altars finely

carved and covered in gold leaf to enshrine beautiful and life-like figures of saints, which were also exported to other domains of the Spanish King.

Indian handiwork, samples of the cinchona bark from which quinine is made, gold, silver, copper, sulphur, marble, tagua, cacao, coffee and tobacco, tell more of the economic life of Ecuador.

Also on view are the fine photographs of Ecuador taken within the last few years by André Roosevelt. They show its imposing snow-capped volcanoes, its picturesque Indians, its fields and flocks, and many aspects of modern city life.

At the back of the room is a bar where you may have a drink of *naranjilla* juice, a treat which you are not likely to have again until you go to Ecuador itself. The *naranjilla* is a small fruit resembling an orange tomato, growing on a plant ten or twelve feet high.

Peru

A few doors down the street is the Peruvian Pavilion. Above its door is a bas-relief by Espinoza Caceda, in front of which stands Peru with her cornucopia of gold, flanked by workers and men of different races who have lived within her borders.

Stepping into the hall you at once feel as if you were in a Peruvian mansion, for before you is a colonial arch, the floor is of ruby mahogany, the ceiling is set with carved beams, about the walls are old paintings and handsome cabinets of dark carved wood holding a collection of the silverwork which is one of the great attractions to visitors in Lima.

The large salon behind this hall contains many things that will hold the art-lover spellbound. All your early memories of Prescott's *Conquest of Peru* will come to mind as you look at the life-sized, eagle-faced figure arrayed in the actual hand-woven garments of an ancient Peruvian; a



Courtesy of Luis Alzamora

THE RECEPTION HALL, PERUVIAN PAVILION

Flooring of ruby mahogany, carved beams, colonial furniture and paintings and handsome silverware make this room a gem.



Courtesy of Luis Alzamora

THE MAIN HALL, PERUVIAN PAVILION

Art lovers will enjoy this hall, with its ancient pottery and textiles and modern paintings and rugs.

red woolen tunic partially covered by a perfect black mantle, with a small fine design in colors. Such weaving is unequalled. Behind this figure is a mummy with its wrappings. The Peruvians did not embalm their dead or put them in cases like those used by the ancient Egyptians, but wrapped them in a sitting position in layer upon layer of textiles which, in the case of persons of high degree, are of exquisite design and workmanship. The dry earth in which many burials were made preserved the bodies.

Next comes a case full of perfect specimens of Chimú pottery, dating from before the Christian era to about 1100 A. D. These jars portray persons and animals and are so full of character and executed with such superb technique that they rank

with enduring works of art. Also they are fun, for many have a humorous touch. The feather mantle and head-dress of the Great Chimú show the luxury with which he was attired, but the examples presented here are not so rich in color as those in the Lima Museum. However, his gold adornments are splendid. Other cases contain examples of pottery and textiles of the Nazca culture which, like the Chimú, antedated the Inca civilization.

Crossing to the other side of the room over soft-colored hand-woven rugs, you find small plaster models of the ornate façades of colonial churches in Arequipa. Several paintings of characteristic scenes by González Gamarra as well as a large tourist map add color to the room. At the rear the operation of social security



Courtesy of Luis Alzamora

PERUVIAN INDUSTRIES

"From the world's rarest fibers to the world's finest fabrics", says the poster in the case of wools and woolen textiles. Peru is the home of the vicuña, alpaca, guanaco, and llama, and also has many sheep. The various kinds of wool are both exported and manufactured at home into fine textiles.

insurance in Peru is explained in three comprehensive charts.

Upstairs the hall is devoted chiefly to exhibits of Peruvian products. Two cases emphasize the work of La Molina Agricultural Experiment Station in cotton genetics and flax culture. Tea, coffee, corn of different colors, wool, wheat, perfume and pharmaceutical products, glassware, wine, textiles, sugar and rum, fur rugs, silverware, fruits and cereals, cacao, tobacco, tinned goods and many kinds of minerals are among the products attractively represented. The paintings will make you wish to witness in real life some of the picturesque and charming scenes they depict.

Venezuela

Turning right on Continental Avenue, you reach the glass-walled Venezuelan pavilion. Venezuela announces its name in large letters as befits a country which, as you are informed inside, is a land of extensive territory, greater in area than the fourteen states of the Atlantic seaboard. It is probably unique in being the only country in the world that has no foreign debt and no personal and income taxes, for its revenue is derived from taxes on petroleum production and other natural resources. Before you enter you pause to gaze at the great overhead painting, 170 ft. long and 18 ft. wide, by L. A. López Méndez and a group of other artists. In its rich colors and design this sets the Venezuelan tone for the building. Looking down, you discover perfect orchid blooms under glass globes beside the walk. These are flown several times a week from Venezuela to the Fair in a little more than twenty-four hours. (If orchids can be flown from Venezuela, couldn't you fly down and back?) Inside the building are stylized trees upon which orchid plants are growing and blooming. Above and beyond the trees is a pictorial map on

which are shown the chief products of Venezuela, including first of all oil, then coffee, salt, cattle, copper, coal, cacao, tobacco, gold, sugar, rubber and many others.

Through the map runs a film saying:

The soil of Venezuela grows the fruits of all lands, from the apples of the north to the oranges that love the sun.

Land of free men—who have fought for independence not only for themselves, but for most of the South American continent. Open land for the pioneers of today. The only country with no internal or external debt.

The only major country in the world with no personal or income taxes . . . land of flowers—Venezuela sends orchids to New York by airplane three times weekly for exhibition at the World's Fair.

Land of power—Venezuela is the first oil-exporting country in the world. It is a promised land where the immigrants of other nations will find a haven of peace with an active and expanding civilization . . . the last frontier—North America no longer has a frontier—Venezuela is now the frontier where the pioneer can lead his caravan of covered wagons . . . Venezuela . . . land of riches—wealthy because of its natural resources, such as oil, for its mines of gold and diamonds, agricultural and cattle lands, minerals and raw materials . . . nearer to New York than Galveston. Nearer to England than Mexico. For the American tourist, only four days away by boat. A land for sport-lovers. A land of beauty, mountains of eternal snow and fertile plains where crops grow twice yearly. No winter, only everlasting Spring.

Sculptures in Venezuelan wood by F. Narváez, R. Marques and A. Curiel display at once the fine mahogany of Venezuela and the talent of her sons. A collection of paintings attracts attention at the side, among them particularly a misty nude by Riberón, who makes his brushes of canvas. Beyond is a case of the new ceramics with national designs being made in Venezuela and some of the exquisite crochet work known as the *soles de Maracaibo*.

Nearby hangs one of Venezuela's cher-



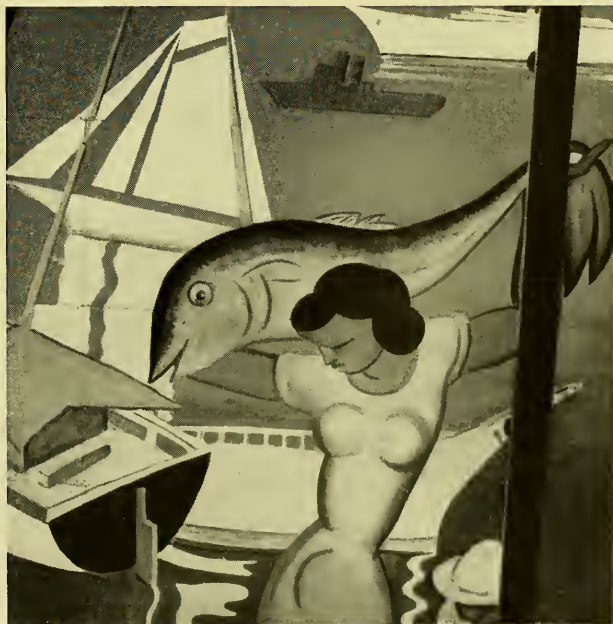
Photographs by Frederic Krojanker

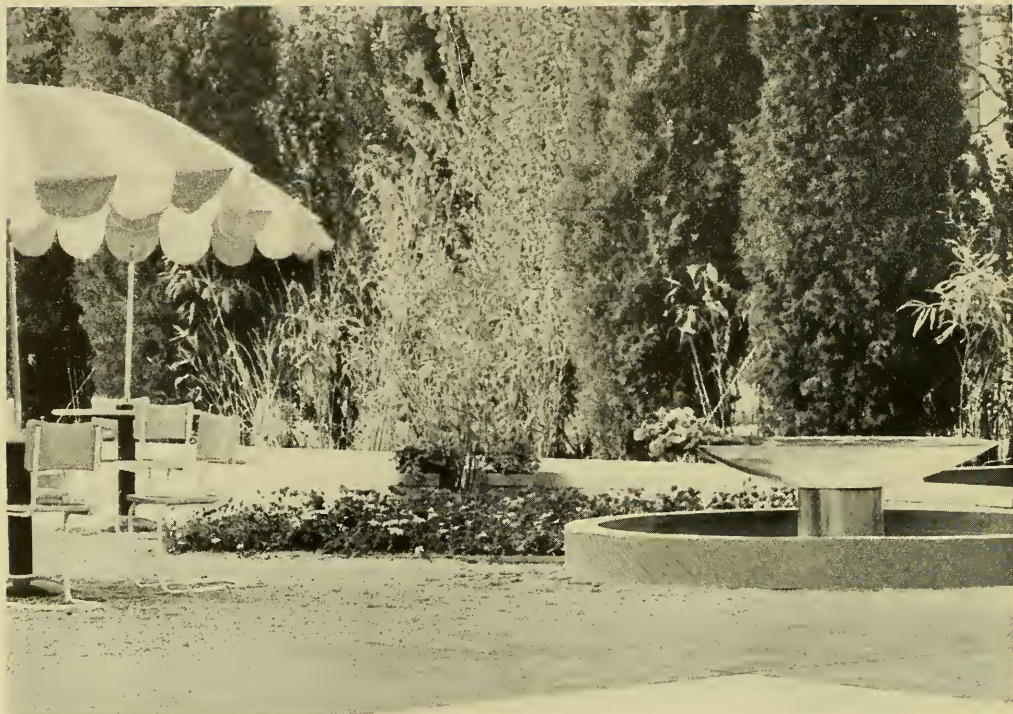
THE VENEZUELAN PAVILION

On opening the pavilion, the Hon. Diógenes Escalante, Ambassador of Venezuela to the United States, said that his country strove to present to the eyes of the world some of the possibilities of its immense natural resources, with an invitation to "be brothers under the torch of understanding and liberty, the bright sun of the Americas." Dr. R. Ernesto López is High Commissioner to the Fair.

DETAIL FROM THE VENEZUELAN DECORATION BY LÓPEZ MÉNDEZ

The port of La Guaira and the fishing industry are symbolized by this part of the painting.





Photographs by Frederic Krejanker

A CORNER OF THE VENEZUELAN GARDEN

Ice cream in exotic flavors, Venezuelan dishes, and a Venezuelan orchestra will make you want to linger here.



STATUES OF VENEZUELAN MAHOGANY

Francisco Narváez, a Venezuelan sculptor, carved in modernistic style from five great blocks of national mahogany, 7 x 5 x 3 feet, statues representing as many of his country's leading products. These two depict cocoa and pearls.

ished treasures, which she has complimented the United States by bringing to the Fair. This is a medallion containing a portrait of George Washington and a lock of his hair, which was presented to Simón Bolívar, the great Venezuelan Liberator, by Washington's family through the Marquis de Lafayette in September 1826. The niche where the medallion hangs is called "The Altar of Friendship."

Strolling on towards the garden, attracted by the orchestra under the leadership of José Vera, we find another overhead painting and then at the side the open-air bar, above which there is a light, charming mural representing four of Venezuela's products, the tonka bean (used in perfumery), coffee, sugar cane and cocoa. If you perch on a bamboo stool at the bar you may have Venezuelan coffee or chocolate, a *ponche crema* (a very superior Venezuelan kind of eggnog) or other drinks, such as are commonly served. Just outside are garden tables where you may enjoy an entire meal in Venezuelan style or a single dish, notably the *hallacas* (large sized, less peppery tamales) or icecream in some of the distinctive Venezuelan flavors like guanábana or tamarind. Pretty girls in old-fashioned country costumes will serve you. Beyond the garden rise five of Narváez' sculptured figures representing coffee, oil, fruit, cereals and cocoa.

A unique oil fountain and oil exhibit in the garden tell the story of the oil industry in Venezuela and its relationship to the life of the people. Venezuela's rise to the position of the leading exporter of petroleum has been meteoric.

Chile

The Chilean Pavilion is sometimes referred to as a showcase by its Chilean architect, Theodore Smith Miller, for without even going inside you see Camilo

Mori's paintings of Chilean scenes through the glass walls and hear three *huasos* (Chilean cowboys) playing their guitars under the orange trees by the tables where Chilean wines and food are served.

It would be a great pity, however, not to enter, for the Pavilion offers a comprehensive and delightful picture of Chile from its nitrate deserts in the north to the lovely lakes in the south overhung by snow-topped mountains. Besides, probably you know one of the young men who is going down this summer to compete in the Pan American skiing tournament and you would like to be able to say, "Oh, yes, I saw that at the Fair," when he starts telling you about his trip. Chile's ski fields are becoming more and more famous. (How about a downhill run with a 3,000-foot drop?) You will enjoy seeing in the tourist hall a diorama of the new hotel at Portillo, against its snowy, mountainous background. This hotel is being built in the Andes especially for skiers. Another shows the hotel at the southern lake resort of Pucón, where fishing is one of the great attractions, and a third at Miramar Beach. This Switzerland of America is a country that endears itself to every traveler. He may ride in comfort on the Diesel-engined train to the south (a model is shown) after he has arrived via boat or, if he is pressed for time, via plane in three and a half days from Miami.

A long map hanging near the ceiling shows pictorially the many resorts available to visitors and also makes clear that Chile, although 2800 miles long, is never more than 150 miles wide. This is the reason that when you look to the east in Chile you almost always see the great cordillera closing every vista. Many large photographs present the charms of this "friendly country", as it is well called on an excellent illustrated pamphlet, one of several distributed here.



Photograph by Janina Lester

THE CHILEAN PAVILION

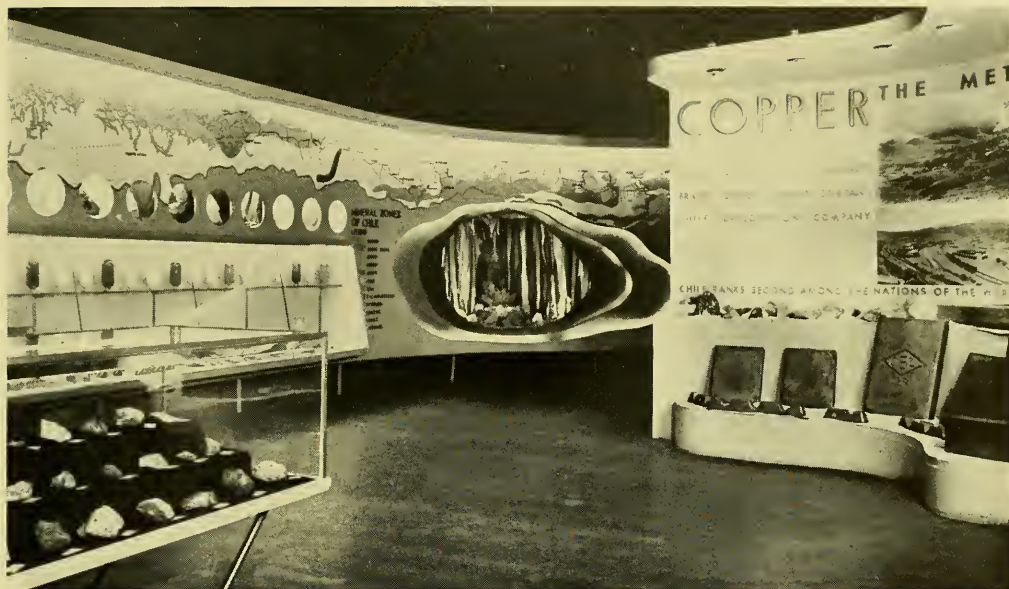
The Hon. Alberto Cabero, Ambassador of Chile to the United States, Senator Rodolfo Michels, Commissioner General of Chile to the World's Fair, and Señor Luis E. Nagel, Director, represented their country at the opening of the pavilion on May 21.



Photograph by Janina Lester

THE CHILEAN TOURIST HALL

The gay map overhead shows numerous centers where tourists in Chile may enjoy themselves in many different ways. Below are dioramas of fishing, skiing, and seaside life, with models of the famous casino at Viña del Mar and the luxurious new hotel at Pucón.



Photograph by Janina Lester

THE CHILEAN MINERAL HALL

Besides ranking second among the nations of the world in the production of copper ingots, Chile has a wealth of other minerals.



Photograph by Janina Lester

THE PRODUCTION OF NITRATE IS A LEADING CHILEAN INDUSTRY

When you order nitrate for your farm or garden, you will like to remember from these animated dioramas how the bleak pampas from which it is shoveled look and how the steamers load the refined product at the piers in distant Chile.

Passing into the next hall you find among other exhibits models of the new buildings of the University of Santiago, statistics of university attendance throughout the country, and graphs showing the operation of the labor laws, which are among the most advanced in the world, and of the laws on social assistance and social security, in which Chile antedated the United States by 11 years. The new stadium in Santiago, the largest in South America, seats 82,000, you will learn as you look at the model.

As you continue you see cases of manufactures and other products, including machine parts, precision tools, guns, bullets, silverware, crackers, mineral waters, tinned vegetables, lentils, tinned fruit and enormous dried prunes, the famous wines and Chilean glasses from which to drink them, textiles, shoes, and leather goods, particularly some handsome light-weight horsehide luggage.

The Araucanian Indians, who resisted the Spanish invader and his descendants until about 1880, are now only a very small section of the Chilean population, but their hand-woven ponchos, or *choapinos*, and silver ornaments are still made in the traditional designs. They form a bright corner in the exhibit.

That Chile is one of the great publishing centers of the Spanish-speaking world is amply attested by its display of books. Beautiful bindings show that this art has gifted followers in the southern republic. Copies of *El Mercurio* of Valparaíso, the oldest newspaper in South America—published continuously since 1827 and a pleasure to read because of its high quality—are on view. Other newspapers and magazines suggest the intellectual life of the republic.

Another large map on the ground floor shows the mineral zones producing sulphur, apatite, copper, nitrate, borite, gold, coal,

talc, asbestos, petroleum, shale, and marbles, and states that Chile is the second country in the production of copper ingots in the world. The Tofo iron mine, owned by the Bethlehem Steel Company, is represented. As you go along the lower hall you will pass four electrically animated dioramas, showing nitrate from its mining in the deserts of the north to its shipment and use on a corn field in the United States, which is being energetically cultivated by the field hands.

Iodine is a by-product of nitrate, and you may be entertained to know that it is useful not only in cattle feed but also to furnish a dye for coloring candy.

Chile tells you that it buys more of its imports from the United States than from any other country, and you will learn many more things from this encyclopedic exhibit.

Brazil

You come last to the Brazilian Pavilion on Rainbow Avenue, next to the French Pavilion. You will find it representative of the size and opulence of a great Republic. You see on the glass window by the entrance a map of Brazil superimposed on that of the United States, showing that Brazil is somewhat larger. Directly in front of you is a coffee bar, at which you may sit to enjoy a cup of the beverage of which Brazil supplies two-thirds of all consumed in the world. Beside it is a counter where the other popular Brazilian drink, *matte*, is sold in packages. All about you are pictures: the wonderful harbor of Rio, the most beautiful in the world, the other great cities of Brazil, its colonial churches, its plantations of coffee, cotton, sugar, and other products, and its factories. The ground floor is chiefly given up to artistic and impressive displays of products of the soil, such as fibers, with which Brazil could supply the world; cotton, in the production of which Brazil



Brasilfoto

CENTRAL COURT OF THE BRAZILIAN PAVILION

The dining room is at the side of this pleasant court. Additional tables are placed near the pool. Brazilian dishes and music may be enjoyed here.



— Brasifoto

IN THE BRAZILIAN PAVILION

The Brazilian Pavilion was opened by the Hon. Carlos Martins Pereira e Souza, Ambassador of Brazil to the United States, and Dr. Armando Vidal, the Commissioner General. Exhibits of fibers and woods show Brazil's inexhaustible resources of these materials.

has made wonderful strides in recent years, as the nearby graphs show; babassú and other palm nuts, which yield valuable oil; carnauba wax; coffee, sugar, cacao, tea and tobacco; fruits, whose export is increasingly important. The restaurant, seating 300 inside and in the garden, is also on

this floor; it has a Brazilian orchestra you will enjoy.

Ascending to the next floor the visitor enters the Good-Neighbor Hall, whose theme is the spirit of conciliation and neighborliness that has always inspired Brazilian foreign policy. The most strik-

ing objects in this room are three large canvases of Brazilian scenes by the painter Candido Portinari; their design and color are extremely decorative.

"Brazil," says a panel on the wall, "has pursued the Good-Neighbor policy for over two hundred years and has settled her border disputes by agreement or arbitration." Portraits of President Vargas and President Roosevelt commemorate the latter's visit to Brazil in 1936. A granite bust of President Vargas is also

here and at one side a bust of President Theodore Roosevelt with one of General Rondon, the great explorer of the Brazilian hinterland and civilizer of the Indians, who had already run a telegraph line along the so-called River of Doubt before Theodore Roosevelt followed it with him through the wilderness.

A list of products also shows that Brazil, so richly endowed by nature, would be able to supply the United States in case of necessity with all necessary raw mate-



Brasilfoto

BRAZILIAN VEGETABLE OILS AND COTTON

The phenomenal increase in Brazilian cotton-growing in recent years is well known, but most people are not so familiar with the many Brazilian palm nuts that offer vast supplies of vegetable oil.



rials, except wool, opium and some other drugs.

This hall is a geologist's paradise, for the mineral wealth of Brazil is represented here by magnificent specimens, so beautiful in themselves that everyone enjoys looking at them. A tribute is paid to the American scientists Louis Agassiz, Charles Hart, Orville Derby, and John Casper Branner, who began the study of Brazilian geology on the ground. The mere list of minerals is truly amazing. Iron in various forms (of which the State of Minas Geraes is said to have reserves of six billion tons), silver, chromium, coal, calcium carbonate, gold, bauxite (the source of aluminum), manganese, a variety of marbles, copper, lead, nickel, zinc, tin, molybdenum, wolframite, radioactive minerals, diamonds in abundance, semi-precious stones, asbestos, phosphates, rock crystal in great chunks (rose as well as white), mica, silica and, surprisingly, nitrates.

Manufactures in wide variety, from textiles to medicines, occupy other cases and many other aspects of Brazilian life are depicted. Your boy who is an aviation enthusiast has quite possibly never heard that a Brazilian priest in 1709 built an aircraft utilizing for the first time the

principle of the lifting power of hot air in cold, but you, if not he, may remember the feats of the Brazilian Santos Dumont, one of the pioneers of aviation, who nearly forty years ago won the first trophy for speed in the air and several other "firsts."

A long and interesting list of men and events helpful in preserving the traditional friendship between the United States and Brazil will claim the attention of every thoughtful American.

Brazil too has not disregarded her primitive inhabitants and you will find some of the great jars shaped by Brazilian Indians.

Pamphlets distributed free describe in text and picture tourist attractions and many natural resources and products. Butterfly trays and other souvenirs are for sale, but you will not need them to make you remember the resources of this magnificent country.

Many other exhibits besides those briefly mentioned here will hold the attention of you and your friends. One will linger here, another there, but no one can fail to have his imagination fed and his mind surprised by what these nine of our American neighbors have told us about themselves.



De la Revista de la Escuela de Bellas Artes, Quito

Bilateral Institutes of Cultural Relations

FRANCISCO J. HERNÁNDEZ
Editorial Division, Pan American Union

HAND IN HAND with increasingly closer economic and political relations between the American nations, a remarkable impetus has been given the current of cultural interchange in the western world by the resolutions adopted at the Lima Conference and at the First Conference of International Committees on Intellectual Cooperation, as well as by treaties and bilateral agreements signed in recent years. In the end this interchange will probably provide the strongest and most lasting bonds uniting the peoples of the Continent.

The year 1938 was particularly fruitful in the establishment of international organizations devoted to the strengthening of cultural ties. Outstanding among them were the numerous bilateral institutes which in Santiago, Rio de Janeiro and Habana, as well as in Montevideo, Quito and Mexico City, have done magnificent work with the collaboration of diplomats, professors, artists, writers and other men and women of good will. The respective governments have invariably given the institutes their backing.

A striking instance is offered by Colombia, whose government issued a decree authorizing the organization of Institutes of Intellectual Cooperation in such of its embassies and legations abroad as may be chosen by a Committee on Cultural Extension (*Comité de Difusión Cultural*), established for the purpose under the National Committee on Intellectual Cooperation.¹

¹ Decree No. 2414, "*Diario Oficial*," Bogotá, January 11, 1939.

Besides organizing libraries of Colombian literary and scientific works to facilitate the task of furnishing accurate and complete information on the various aspects of Colombian culture, each Institute is to distribute works of Colombian origin which, in the opinion of the Committee, are worthy of being made known abroad; report periodically to Colombian cultural institutions regarding cultural trends in the respective foreign country; promote permanent cultural relations between Colombian universities and those of the other nation by means of reciprocal visits of professors and students; foster other forms of intellectual cooperation between Colombia and the countries wherein the Institutes have been established; seek more extensive publication of Colombian news; and arrange for a Colombian section in the national library of the other nation.

At the commemoration of American Culture Day, held in Habana on October 13th last, and attended by the then Secretary of State Remos and eminent representatives of artistic and literary circles, announcement was made of the establishment of 20 cultural institutes in the Cuban capital, each to function in relation to another American Republic. On the same day the city of Buenos Aires witnessed the founding of an Argentine-Cuban Cultural Institute, headed by Don Juan Carlos Rébora. The ceremony, held in the Cuban Legation, was attended by the Minister of Public Instruction of Argentina.

The Association of American Writers

and Artists, with headquarters at Habana, has been extremely active. It lends valuable support to the inter-American cultural movement through its excellent official publication, *América* (a literary monthly), and has organized national branches in various Latin American republics. Only recently such societies were established in Panama, Uruguay and Haiti.

The inauguration last November of the Bolivian-Chilean Cultural Institute was an opportune occasion for reaffirming the amity that characterizes the relations between these two neighboring republics. The meeting was held in the Ministry of Education at La Paz, and the then Minister, Colonel Alfredo Peñaranda, declared that there must be no delay in "the exchange of intellectual workers and the fruits of the mind." He referred to the generous ideals that prompted the founding of the Institute, which is reciprocal to the Chilean-Bolivian Institute established in Santiago, and stressed the fact that it would not limit its activity to intellectual interchange alone, but would endeavor to place the friendly relations of the two countries on a still firmer basis of mutual understanding. Dr. Héctor Ormachea, Dean of the University of La Paz, presided at the ceremony, at which Sr. José Salmón was inducted as first President of the Institute.

The commemoration of the 122nd anniversary of the Congress of Tucumán, held in the Argentine Embassy at Lima last July, was the occasion chosen for the organization of a Peruvian-Argentine Institute, with the enthusiastic support of citizens of both countries. Among other purposes set forth in the organization proceedings, the Institute seeks to "promote closer fraternal ties between the two countries, organizing their intellectual and cultural relationships to mutual benefit and in favor of continental unity." Dr. Horacio Urteaga was elected President.

Lima can boast, furthermore, of a Peruvian-North American Cultural Institute which has done splendid work in the brief span of its life. Its fundamental aim is to make the people of Peru and the United States better acquainted. At the inaugural meeting last December, a special program was prepared in honor of the delegates and visitors from the United States who attended the Eighth International Conference of American States, and the first lecture of a series entitled *Panorama of Peruvian Culture* was given on this occasion. The principal speakers were the Hon. Laurence A. Steinhardt, then Ambassador of the United States to Peru; Secretary of State Cordell Hull; Dr. Alfredo Álvarez Calderón, President of the Institute, and Dr. Manuel Beltroy, the secretary. "We have chosen as interpreters of Peruvian life and work", said Dr. Beltroy, addressing the guests of honor, "writers, intellectuals and distinguished professional men who speak or write your rich and beautiful language; painters and sculptors who represent the latest tendencies in Peruvian art; composers and orchestra leaders who best express the national spirit in their compositions; artists and scientists of note; in fact, we have selected people whose work and creations truly express the Peru of today . . . and they welcome you in the name of our youth, anxious to learn about your high cultural attainments and to defend with you the common foundations of our civic and intellectual life."

Special mention is well deserved by the Argentine-American Cultural Institute of Buenos Aires for its outstanding success, throughout nearly twelve years of existence, in steady growth, variety of activities and achievement of original objectives.² It issues publications in both English and

² See "A Center of Argentine-American Friendship", by Elsie Brown, BULLETIN, January 1939.



Courtesy of the Legation of Colombia in Washington

THE NATIONAL LIBRARY, BOGOTA

The Colombian Government has planned a broad program of library cooperation with the other American republics to be carried out under the auspices of the Ministry of Education.

Spanish; sponsors lectures by prominent scholars of both countries; encourages the distribution of American works in Argentina and sends Argentine books to the United States; aids in the selection of candidates for scholarships in the United States and grants others for study at the Institute itself; fosters exchange of correspondence between students of both countries, and undertakes many other activities extremely fruitful in helping the people of each country acquire a real understanding of the other. However, the highest praise must go to its educational activities, which have increased by leaps and bounds, with special emphasis on the teaching of Eng-

lish. "The example of a single private institution with over three thousand students studying English—a foreign language", says Professor Warshaw of the University of Missouri, "and paying for the privilege in a country surrounded by nations of its own stock and language, may actually be a more striking demonstration of social-mindedness than the thousands of schools in the United States in which pupils never hear a language spoken except their own and never come to know through personal experience how other peoples of the world think and feel 'in the original' or what some of the intangibles of the written or spoken language are that reveal the

temperament, tastes and psychological quirks and twists of peoples who have as much to do with making the world go round as we ourselves."³

Other organizations which function with commendable zeal and enthusiasm in Buenos Aires are the Argentine-Brazilian, the Argentine-Bolivian and the Argentine-Uruguayan Cultural Institutes. The last-named was founded by the Museo Social Argentino and sponsors reciprocal visits by scholars of Argentina and Uruguay; promotes the exchange of professors, artists, men of letters and scientists; establishes connections and cooperative arrangements with cultural institutions or those specializing in social economy; and organizes research, surveys, lectures and special meetings relative to its specific objectives. Established also under the auspices of the Museo Social, there is another active organization: the Argentine-Paraguayan Cultural Institute, guided and supported by prominent men of both countries.

Close collaboration with the reciprocal Buenos Aires organization is maintained, in Brazil, by the Brazilian-Argentine Cultural Institute, which has made for itself an enviable record in the promotion of international good will since its establishment, more than five years ago. The task of organizing and improving the cultural relations between Brazil and the United States has been entrusted to an Institute created under the auspices of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, at Rio de Janeiro, following suggestions of a group of distinguished Brazilians who at one time or another have resided in the United States. Outstanding among its founders are Dr. Helio Lobo, Minister in the Brazilian Diplomatic Service; Dr. Hugh C. Tucker, dean of the American

³ "Hispania", *Stanford University, California, December 1938*.



Courtesy of Dr. Alfredo Colmo

ARGENTINE-AMERICAN CULTURAL INSTITUTE

Since its foundation in 1928, this organization has carried forward in Buenos Aires an active program of cooperation between Argentina and the United States.

colony in Rio; Dr. Carlos Delgado de Carvalho, professor at the University of Rio de Janeiro, and Mrs. Branca Fialho, a member of the executive board of the

Brazilian Education Association. São Paulo has a Brazil-United States Cultural Union (União Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos) established October 22, 1938, with Professor A. G. Pacheco as its first president.

It is in the Republic of Chile, however, where the greatest activity is displayed by the bilateral organizations devoted to cultural rapprochement among the American republics. Created by the Chilean Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, institutes have been established to promote closer cultural relations with the Argentine Republic, Bolivia, Colombia, Cuba, Mexico, Ecuador, Panama, the United States, Venezuela and Costa Rica; and throughout the past year they have held numerous musicales and lectures, organized exhibitions, sponsored radio programs and entertained writers, university professors and other visiting intellectuals.

The Chile-United States Cultural Institute was formally inaugurated on November 24, 1938, and according to the *Andean Monthly*, the tiny but interesting magazine acquired by that society only last April, "it is a non-political, non-religious, non-commercial organization which has for its object to improve and clarify the reciprocal understanding between the citizens of Chile and the citizens of the United States of America, and to increase the knowledge of each country in the other with regard to social and economic conditions as well as to history, geography and the development of culture and science." To this end, "the Institute will endeavor to promote the exchange of professors, students, artists, scientists and visitors; the establishment of more scholarships; the translation of contemporary

literature of each country into the language of the other," among numerous other activities.

Efforts have been made to create similar institutes in the various sister countries so as to collaborate with the respective organizations in Santiago. The Chilean-Costa Rican Cultural Institute, the latest to be launched officially, already has its twin at San José, Costa Rica.

The founding and the efficient work of these institutes are due to the organizing ability and the unselfish enterprise of the Chilean Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, and particularly of its chairman, Dr. Juvenal Hernández. Not only in this capacity, but in his position as Rector (President) of the University of Chile and in his journeys all over the continent, Dr. Hernández has contributed to the spiritual unity of America.

Cultural circles in Ecuador, Venezuela, Mexico, Panama and other countries are displaying marked interest in organizing institutes reciprocal to those now in operation, as well as in employing generally the same procedure to foster closer cultural relations with nations where such institutes have not as yet been established. Caracas now has a Venezuelan-Cuban Institute of Culture; in Ecuador, where the Centro Cultural Ecuatoriano-Argentino had been functioning since 1936, the Central University sponsored last year the founding of a similar center "to improve intellectual relations with Chile."

The Pan American Union follows with keen interest and satisfaction the steady development of this movement, which naturally has its encouragement, and in subsequent issues the BULLETIN will take pleasure in reporting on new institutes.

International Copyright Protection

The Present Status

WILLIAM SANDERS

Chief of the Juridical Division of the Pan American Union

THE UNIVERSAL CHARACTER of the problem of copyright protection is evidenced by the constant preoccupation it has aroused in the international field in the last fifty years. Today, there are in existence two great international systems regulating the protection of products of the mind of a scientific, artistic and literary character. One is the régime created by inter-American treaties signed at Montevideo in 1889, Mexico City in 1902, Rio de Janeiro in 1906, Buenos Aires in 1910, and Habana in 1928. The other is the system known as the International Copyright Union at Berne, created by the conventions signed at Berne in 1886 and revised at Berlin in 1908 and at Rome in 1928. The Berne Union is universal in character in that all the States of the world may become parties; the Pan American system is regional in character, being confined to the American Republics.

There are fundamental differences between these two systems; since 1930 concerted effort has been made in both Europe and the Americas to eliminate them, or at least to bring about some uniformity. Thus, at the conference held in 1928 at Rome for the revision of the Berne conventions, a resolution proposed by the Brazilian and French delegations was adopted suggesting that a study be made of the two systems looking toward their possible reconciliation. This idea was later approved by the IXth and XVth Assemblies of the League of Nations, and led to the appointment of a committee of experts entrusted

with the study of the subject. The committee was appointed jointly by the International Institute of Rome for the Unification of Private Law and the International Institute of Paris for Intellectual Cooperation. At a meeting held in April 1936, this group of experts drew up a draft convention on the universal protection of authors' rights, which has become one of the bases of discussion of the Diplomatic Conference on Copyright Protection scheduled to meet at Brussels during the present year.

Paralleling the action taken in Europe, the International Conferences of American States have devoted serious attention to the same problem. One of the topics of the program of the Seventh Conference at Montevideo in 1933 related to "Inter-American copyright protection and the possibility of reconciling the Habana and Rome Conventions." Pursuant to a request of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, the Executive Committee of the American Institute of International Law prepared a study of the Pan American and Berne systems, which was submitted to the consideration of the Seventh Conference. The Conference adopted a resolution creating a commission of five, whose seat is at Montevideo, entrusted with the study of the possibility of reconciling the Berne-Rome and Buenos Aires-Habana systems. In the resolution the Conference incorporated twelve general principles which it recommended to the consideration of the said commission,

along with the study of the legislation on the subject in effect in the American countries. In accordance with the mandate of the Conference, the Commission of Montevideo presented in 1936 to the American Governments, through the Pan American Union, a draft convention on the universal protection of authors' rights. As Señor José G. Antuña, the Chairman of the Montevideo Commission, had participated in the drafting of the project of convention of the Committee of Experts at Paris, the Commission transmitted the European draft to the Pan American Union, for submission to the American Governments, as the "personal vote of Dr. Antuña."

The Lima Conference, held last December, had on its program the topic "Consideration of the Project of Convention on Intellectual Property drafted by the Inter-American Commission on Intellectual Property of Montevideo." As a result of the deliberations of the Conference on this subject, a resolution was adopted recommending that the States, members of the Pan American Union, send delegates to the Diplomatic Conference convoked by the Belgian Government for 1939, and that they arrange to have these delegates give particular consideration to the draft of the Pan American Commission of Montevideo, and also attempt to regulate the protection of property in press notices. In addition, the delegation of the United States of America proposed, and the Conference approved, a resolution on the purely American phase of the problem of copyright protection, raised by a draft resolution and draft additional protocol to the Buenos Aires Convention circulated among the delegations at the Conference by the American National Committee on Intellectual Cooperation. In accordance with the proposal of the American delegation, the Conference resolved to transmit

the said draft resolution and protocol to the Pan American Union for submission to the Governments, members of the Pan American Union. The Union is requested to prepare a definitive draft convention on the basis of the replies received from the Governments with respect to the protocol, which draft convention shall be transmitted to the consideration of the Ninth International Conference of American States or of a special conference, or be opened for signature at the Pan American Union. The Union is empowered to decide which of the three alternatives shall be selected. The resolution finally determines that the project on the universal aspect of copyright protection prepared by the Commission of Montevideo shall be the object of deliberation along with the draft resolution and protocol of the American National Committee on Intellectual Cooperation.

Another step in the same direction was taken by the First American Conference of National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation, which met at Santiago, Chile, in January of the present year. This Conference adopted a resolution urging the governments to present their observations on the draft conventions prepared by the Commission of Montevideo and the Committee of Experts of Paris, and to look into the possibility of improving inter-American copyright relations through a study of existing treaties and of the national legislation on the subject. The Conference also specifically recommended that in considering the copyright situation created by existing inter-American treaties on the subject, the governments study the above-mentioned additional protocol of the American National Committee, which contains the bases of a possible revision of the said treaties.

The situation created by the resolutions of Lima and Santiago has two definite

aspects. One relates to the problem of the universal protection of intellectual works and the other relates to the problem of copyright protection in the Americas. The first is to be considered at the Brussels Conference which, it is believed, will be held late this year. The other is to be determined according to a procedure to be approved by the Pan American Union. Fully to understand this situation it is necessary to know something of the background of the problem in both Europe and the Americas.

The original convention creating the International Copyright Union was signed at Berne on September 9, 1886. This agreement provides that the authors of any of the countries, parties to the Convention, have copyright protection in any other country of the Union under the same conditions as nationals of the latter country. To secure protection under the Convention the author is required only to satisfy the formalities prescribed by the country of origin, i. e., by the country of first publication. The Convention also contains the beginning of common legislation on the subject, in its provisions establishing certain minimum rights to be enjoyed by the author; these provisions are intended to prevail over the national legislation on the subject. These stipulations relate to translations, reproductions of newspaper and periodical articles, reproduction of copyrighted works in publications intended for instruction and chrestomathies, the public presentation of dramatic or dramaticomusical works, indirect appropriation of literary and artistic works through adaptations and arrangements, etc. Sixteen states became parties to this agreement, of which only Haiti was from the Western Hemisphere.

In an Additional Act to and a Declaration of Interpretation of the above Convention, signed at Paris in 1896, several

changes were made in the original agreement, the most important of these being the provision that authors who are not subjects of one of the contracting parties may secure protection for their works by first publishing in one of the countries of the Union.

This Act was followed by the Convention signed at Berlin on November 13, 1908, which substantially revised the previous Convention. This new instrument was designed to replace the Convention of 1886 and the Act of 1896, but it was stipulated that any country, party to the latter agreements, could ratify or adhere to the Berlin agreement, while maintaining the provisions of the older instruments with respect to points that it specified. Forty countries, among them Brazil and Haiti, became parties to this Convention.

The most important advances of the Berlin Convention are its provisions that all formalities are eliminated and that protection is independent of the recognition of copyright in the country of origin, and the fact that it contains a more precise definition of the works specifically protected.

The Berlin Convention was followed by an Additional Protocol signed at Berne on March 20, 1914, which establishes that a Copyright Union country may at its option refuse to protect, or limit the protection of, works of authors who are nationals of a non-member country that does not adequately protect the works of authors of the said Union country and who, at the time of the first publication, are not actually domiciled in one of the countries of the Union.

The latest revision of the Berne system was made at Rome on June 2, 1928. The new agreement did not rewrite but merely supplemented the Berlin Convention. The important changes are: (1) Oral works (lectures, addresses, sermons) are included

among those expressly protected; (2) the provisions of the Additional Protocol of 1914 are reaffirmed; (3) the moral right of the author (defined as the right to object to any deformation, mutilation or modification of his work prejudicial to his honor or reputation) is expressly recognized; (4) the exclusive right of the author to authorize the radio broadcasting of his work is recognized; (5) the right to make reservations to the Convention is abandoned; (6) the parties may exclude from protection political discourses or discourses pronounced in judicial debates. Forty countries, including Brazil, are parties to the Rome Convention.

The foregoing presents in outline the chief characteristics of the Berne system of international copyright protection. The Pan American system differs in some important respects from the European system, as is indicated in the succeeding paragraphs.

Although not properly speaking a Pan American agreement, the Treaty on Literary and Artistic Property, signed at Montevideo at the South American Congress on Private International Law held in 1888-1889, is generally listed as the first instrument establishing the Pan American copyright system. Contrary to the rule followed in later Pan American treaties on copyright, it is open to the adherence of non-American States but, contrary to the Berne Union conventions, such adherence is subject to the acceptance of the parties. The parties are Argentina, Bolivia, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay. Adherences have been made by European countries and those of France, Spain, Belgium and Italy have been accepted by Argentina and Paraguay, Germany's by Argentina, Bolivia and Paraguay, and Austria's by Argentina.

The Montevideo Treaty protects works published in one of the contracting countries, regardless of the nationality of the

author. The question of formalities is not mentioned and the Treaty has been interpreted to establish that none are required, even in the country of origin. This Treaty, like that signed at Berne in 1886, establishes certain minimum rights enjoyed by the author irrespective of the national law and thus contains the beginnings of a common international legislation. However, it adheres in general to the rule that the nature and extent of the rights of the author shall be determined on the basis of the national law of the country of origin. This latter is the principle of the *lex loci*, or law of territoriality, in opposition to the *lex fori*, or protection according to the law of the country where the protection is claimed, which is found in the later conventions of the Berne Union.

Another inter-American convention sometimes listed as one of the component instruments of the Pan American system is the Agreement on Literary and Artistic Property, signed at the Bolivarian Congress at Caracas in 1911, to which Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela are the only parties. It is similar to the Montevideo Treaty but differs from it in protecting only citizens of the contracting countries, and not all works, regardless of the nationality of the author, published in the territory of one of the parties. It also incorporates the principle of the *lex loci*, though it apparently requires the satisfaction of the formalities prescribed by each country rather than only those of the country of origin.

The first truly Pan American convention on copyright protection is the one signed at the Second International Conference of American States, held at Mexico City in 1902. It provides for a Union for the protection of authors' rights and establishes that nationals of the contracting parties shall have protection. The nature and extent of the protection, aside from

the provisions of the convention enacting a common legislation, are determined by the laws of the country where the protection is sought, i. e., the principle of the *lex fori* is followed. With respect to formalities the convention provides that the author must register and deposit copies of his work in the countries in which he desires protection through the instrumentality of the copyright office of his country. The following seven countries have become parties to this convention: Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and the United States of America.

The convention signed at the Third International Conference of American States held at Rio de Janeiro in 1906 incorporates the provisions of the convention of Mexico City and provides for the establishment of two copyright bureaus, one at Rio de Janeiro and the other at Habana, for the international registration of intellectual works. These bureaus were never established because of the failure of a sufficient number of countries to ratify the convention. The following nine countries ratified this agreement: Brazil, Costa Rica, Chile, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama.

For the reasons given below the basic instrument on copyright protection in the Americas is the convention signed at Buenos Aires in 1910 at the Fourth International Conference of American States. Here the idea of a union for the protection of copyright, which had prevailed at Mexico City and at Rio de Janeiro, is abandoned. The persons protected are authors or their legal representatives, "nationals or domiciled foreigners." This means that in order to secure protection under the convention the works must have been published in an American country, party to the convention, by a national of that country or by a foreigner domiciled

in its territory. With respect to formalities, the convention reverts to the principle of the Berne Convention of 1886, which means that all formalities except those of the country of origin are abandoned. It differs from the latter convention in that, in order to claim protection under the convention, the work must have "some indication that the copyright is reserved." The nature and extent of the protection is regulated by the principle of *lex fori*, aside from the provisions of the convention establishing a common régime.

The Buenos Aires Convention has been ratified by the following fourteen countries: Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States of America, and Uruguay.

The above agreement was revised at Habana in 1928 at the Sixth International Conference of American States. Among the more important changes introduced by the new convention are: (1) An apparent reversion to the system of the *lex loci* regarding the rights not stipulated in the Convention; (2) additions to the works expressly protected, among them being "arts applied to any human activity whatsoever"; (3) the requirement that the author shall indicate on his work, in addition to the statement of the reservation of copyright, the name of the person in whose favor the reservation is registered, the country of origin (the country in which the first publication was made or those in which simultaneous publications were made), as well as the year of the first publication; (4) a stipulation that in transferring his work the author assigns only the right of reproduction and enjoyment and retains the moral right (to oppose any reproduction or public exhibition of his work in altered, mutilated or revised form), which he cannot alienate. In this last provision

the Habana Convention goes considerably beyond the Berne Convention, as will be indicated shortly.

Among the more important differences between the two systems described above are the following points:¹

Works protected.—The Rome Convention protects oral works, pantomines, works of architecture and unpublished works, which are not specifically covered by the Habana Convention, but the latter includes photographic and cinematographic works or reproductions by means of mechanical instruments designed for the reproduction of sounds, and arts applied to any human activity whatsoever, all of which are not expressly included in the Rome Convention. Also, under the latter Convention the author has the exclusive right to authorize the radio transmission of his work. At Habana, a similar proposal was rejected. Finally, under the European system translations and cinematographic works are protected as original works, whereas the Habana Convention protects only lawful translations or those made of works in which no copyright exists or in which the copyright has expired, and cinematographic works are protected only as they reproduce, adapt or publicly present a literary or artistic work.

Persons protected.—The Rome Convention looks both to the nationality of the author and to the nationality of the work. Thus, the works of nationals of the contracting states are protected as well as works by nationals of a non-member country when published for the first time in a member country or simultaneously in a member country and a non-member country. According to the Buenos Aires-Habana

Conventions, it is necessary for authors to obtain protection in an American country in the manner established by its laws in order to be protected in the other contracting countries.

Formalities.—The Rome Convention does not require the satisfaction of any formalities as a condition to the enjoyment of the protection stipulated therein, i. e., no formalities are required either in the country of origin or in the country where protection is claimed, and the existence or non-existence of copyright protection in the country of origin is immaterial. The Buenos Aires-Habana system, on the other hand, requires two formal steps, the satisfaction of formalities in the country of origin, and an indication on the work of the reservation of the property right (Buenos Aires) and the date of first publication, name of the author or registrant, and the country of origin (Habana).

Nature and extent of the rights granted.—The nature and extent of the rights enjoyed by the copyright owner is determined in general under the Berne Convention on the basis of the law of the country where protection is claimed, i. e., on the basis of the *lex fori*. There is considerable uncertainty on this point in the Buenos Aires and Habana Conventions. It will be recalled that the Mexico City and Rio de Janeiro Conventions adopt the rule of territoriality or the *lex fori*, but Article 3 of the Buenos Aires-Habana Conventions provides that a copyright obtained in one country in accordance with its laws will produce "its full effect" in the other countries. This may be held to apply the principle of the *lex loci*. However, in Article 6 of the Buenos Aires Convention the principle of the *lex fori* is apparently retained in that the author, if a citizen or domiciled foreigner of a signatory state, enjoys in all the other signatory countries the rights ac-

¹ A full discussion of these problems is contained in the comparative study prepared by the American Institute of International Law and presented to the Seventh International Conference of American States in 1933, and in the study published by the International Bureau of Berne in "*Droit d'Auteur*", 1934."

corded by the laws of the respective states. This provision is not found in the Habana Convention, although the latter, like the Buenos Aires Convention, contains a general enunciation of the rights of the author in its stipulation that he has "the exclusive power of disposing of the same (his work), of publishing, assigning, translating or authorizing its translation, and reproducing it in any form whether wholly or in part." The Habana Convention also contains other specific grants of rights to the author.

Four approaches to the problem of reconciling the two systems have been proposed and discussed both in Europe and in the Americas. These proposals are among the documents to be considered by the Brussels Diplomatic Conference to be held this year. The first solution is a proposal of the Brazilian Government, the only American party to the Rome Convention, that the Berne system be modified to permit American States to adhere, subject to one of the following reservations: (1) that the protection of works originating in other countries carry a formal reservation of rights by the author or his representative; (2) that protection be conditioned on the international registration of the work with the International Bureau of Berne.

The second approach is represented by the draft prepared by the Inter-American Committee on Copyright Protection of Montevideo, created by the Seventh International Conference of American States. This is the draft that was before the Lima Conference in December of last year. The central idea is that a new convention should replace both the Berne and Pan American Conventions. This new instrument would incorporate all the rules of the two systems not mutually incompatible and adopt formulae to bridge the differences between the two régimes.

The third solution is the proposal that a

convention be signed containing a number of the principles already found in the two systems which do not affect previous international agreements, at least insofar as these agreements grant more extensive rights to authors. In other words, the new convention should be confined to those general principles of copyright protection of the two régimes that constitute for the member countries a common international legislation, leaving to the existing treaties of the respective systems the determination of matters upon which there is difference or the regulation of which is left to the respective national legislatures. This is the central idea of the draft prepared at Paris in 1936 by the Committee of Experts appointed by the Paris and Rome Institutes.

Finally, the International Bureau at Berne has proposed that an agreement be entered into whereby the countries of the two groups of states grant national treatment to works originating in any country of the other group. This engagement would not affect the relations *inter se* of the countries parties to one or the other system. The agreement would also contain a limited number of principles of common international legislation applicable to both groups and also a commitment for international registration as the sole formality.

Along with these efforts to harmonize or reconcile the two systems of copyright protection, a movement has developed which aims at an improvement of inter-American copyright relations, apart from the more general problem of a universal agreement. The proponents of this idea hold that the possibility of a solution of the Pan American-European problem will be ultimately facilitated if the situation in the Americas is clarified and improved. This view prevailed in the resolution on Inter-American Copyright Protection adopted by the Lima Conference, wherein the recommendations

of the American National Committee on Intellectual Cooperation are referred to the Pan American Union with the request that the Union consult the member governments and prepare a convention on the subject for their signature.

As indicated previously, the resolution on Inter-American Copyright Protection of the Lima Conference also provides that the draft convention on universal copyright protection of the Commission of Montevideo shall be studied along with the project of an additional protocol of the American National Committee.

As the latter project is limited in its objectives to the elimination of certain difficulties and ambiguities in existing inter-American treaties, which are not open to the adherence of non-American governments, the simultaneous consideration of a draft proposal that is designed to regulate world copyright protection might at first glance appear contradictory.

This reference, however, seems to be indicative of an intention on the part of the Conference that in considering possible improvements of inter-American treaties on the basis of the additional protocol, the American governments should have in mind the possibility of incorporating in the new agreement a thoroughgoing revision of New World copyright protection in the light of the latest developments in the field. This would be an alternative approach to the purely American problem.

The factors that motivate the movement to improve inter-American copyright protection, particularly as provided for in the draft additional protocol, are the following. There exists in the first place the conviction that a material contribution could be made to inter-American intellectual cooperation through an improvement of Pan American copyright relations because of the encouragement it would give to authors and publishers to expand the market

for their writings and books in countries which today they will not enter because they have no guarantee of protection. In the second place, it is felt that progress toward a satisfactory solution of the copyright problem in its universal aspect will be slow and that inter-American relations should not remain static while the world agreement is being concluded and ratified.

It is pointed out that progress in the inter-American field was steady and sure until the advent of the Habana Convention. Thus, the Mexico City Convention was ratified by seven countries, that of Rio de Janeiro by nine, and that of Buenos Aires by fourteen, but the Habana Convention by only five, though ten years have passed since it was concluded. For this reason it is felt that the Habana Convention constitutes an obstacle to further advance, in that it contains a number of provisions that the majority of the American Republics have found unacceptable.

The instrument that regulates the international copyright relations of the majority of the American Republics is the Convention of Buenos Aires. This Convention has been ratified by all but El Salvador of the parties to the Mexico City Convention, and by all but Chile and El Salvador of the parties to the Rio de Janeiro Convention. As El Salvador is not a party to the Buenos Aires Convention but is a party to the Rio de Janeiro Convention, which superseded the Mexico City Convention, the latter instrument is today in effect only between that country and the United States and the Dominican Republic, the two parties to the Mexico City Convention that failed to ratify the Convention of Rio de Janeiro. Similarly, the Rio de Janeiro Convention is today in effect only between Chile and El Salvador in their relations *inter se* and in their relations with the other parties to that Convention that have since ratified the Buenos Aires Conven-

tion. The Buenos Aires Convention has been ratified by fourteen countries, of which five have become parties to the Habana Convention. For these five in their mutual relations the Buenos Aires Convention has been replaced by that of Habana, although the former still subsists in their relations with the other parties to that convention.

The countries that have not ratified the Buenos Aires Convention are: Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, El Salvador, Cuba, Mexico and Venezuela. Of these, Argentina and Bolivia are bound by the Treaty of Montevideo of 1889; Chile and El Salvador by that of Rio de Janeiro and the latter also by that of Mexico City; Cuba has no international commitments but has reciprocal relations with the United States; Mexico has bilateral treaties with Colombia, Ecuador and the Dominican Republic and reciprocal relations with the United States; and Venezuela has a bilateral treaty with El Salvador and is bound by the Treaty of Caracas of 1911 with Ecuador and Peru.

From the foregoing, it is seen that the Buenos Aires Convention is the basic copyright instrument in the Americas not only because of its advanced position in the evolution of international copyright protection but also because it has obtained the approval of the majority of the American Republics. It is for this reason that the recommendations relative to the improvement of inter-American copyright relations are based on that instrument. The proposals are directed to the elimination of the ambiguities existing in the Buenos Aires Convention and to the adoption of the progressive principles of the Habana Convention while discarding those which apparently are not acceptable to the majority of the signatories of the latter instrument.

Among the features of the Habana Con-

vention considered unsatisfactory are: (1) the inclusion among the works expressly protected of sketches relative to architecture and of "the arts applied to any human activity whatever"; (2) the ambiguity with regard to whether the convention incorporates the principle of *lex loci* or the principle of *lex fori* with respect to the rights enjoyed by the author that are not expressly stipulated; (3) the fact that doubt has been expressed on the point of whether the Buenos Aires and Habana Conventions require compliance only with the formalities of the country of origin or with those of each country where protection is desired; (4) the fact that the formality of the Buenos Aires Convention, that the work shall carry an indication of the reservation of the property right, is extended by the Habana agreement to include the name of the author or registrant, the date of publication and the country of origin; and (5) the provision that the moral rights specifically mentioned in the convention are inalienable.

The aforementioned proposal of the American National Committee, which was submitted to the Lima Conference, is that these difficulties and ambiguities be eliminated through the adoption of an additional protocol to the Buenos Aires Convention which, while incorporating the advances made by the Habana Convention over the former instrument, shall remove the provisions in the latter agreement that have been found unacceptable. Thus, such an additional protocol would abandon the specific protection of the applied arts; it would expressly reaffirm the principle that the nature and extent of the rights of the author, aside from the provisions of the convention establishing a common legislation, shall be determined by the law of the country where protection is claimed; it would stipulate also that only the formalities of the country of origin

shall be required, with the exception of the single obligation to indicate the reservation of the property right, prescribed by the Buenos Aires Convention. The protocol would also replace the provisions of the Habana Convention making moral rights inalienable, by a stipulation that such rights may be transferred by the author, if done so expressly and unmistakably.

This last point is of special interest today when so much importance is attached to the dissemination of information and culture through the cinema, the press and the radio. In theory the moral rights of the author include the determination of where and how his work shall be published, exhibited or presented to the public; the right to have his name associated with the work, and the right to control the changes to be made in his work. The Rome Convention expressly protects the last two of these rights by establishing that the author retains, even after assignment of his economic or property rights in his work, "the right to claim the paternity of the work, as well as the right to object to every deformation, mutilation or other modification of the said work, which may be prejudicial to his honor or to his reputation." It is left to the legislation of each country to establish the conditions for the exercise of these rights. The protection of the remaining group of rights mentioned above, the right to determine where and how the author's work shall be published, was proposed at the Conference at Rome but was rejected.

The Habana Convention, on the other hand, establishes simply that authors can transfer only the "right of enjoyment and of reproduction", retaining the inalienable right to "oppose any public reproduction or exhibition of their altered, mutilated or revised works." It is thus silent on the right to claim the paternity of the work; it enunciates the right to oppose changes in much broader language than the Rome

Convention, and it expressly provides that this right is inalienable. The draft prepared by the Inter-American Committee of Montevideo is similar on this subject to the Habana Convention, except that it expressly includes the right to claim the paternity of the work. The draft of the Committee of Experts of Paris differs from the Montevideo project only in that, like the Rome Convention, it limits the rights of the author to oppose modifications after he has assigned his work, to those "prejudicial to his honor or to his reputation." However, at a meeting held in October 1938, the Committee agreed to recommend that the provision of the draft relative to the inalienability of the moral right should be eliminated.

With respect to the general problem of moral rights the Committee for the Study of Copyright, a sub-committee of the American National Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, has stated that:

In regard to the moral right of authors, the view strongly held in the United States is that each author should have complete rights in his works and that he should be the judge of the conditions under which he may license or otherwise arrange for their use. The great users of intellectual property, the magazine publishers, motion picture producers, and radio broadcasters, maintain that since it is ordinarily impossible to avoid making certain modifications in the original form of a work in order to fit it to their uses, such modifications should be possible of arrangements by contractual agreements between authors and the users of literary and artistic property. Provision in relation to moral rights should be designed to avoid abuses. It is desirable to protect the author from being forced to resign all moral rights in order to sell his creations; and on the other hand, the user should be free to make such modifications as may be necessary and as have been agreed upon when rights to use a special work were secured.

As indicated previously, probably the most difficult obstacle to the reconciliation of the Pan American and the Berne Union régimes is the question of formalities. This problem is also of prime importance

in its inter-American aspect. While the plain intent of the Buenos Aires and Habana Conventions is to abolish all formalities, except those of the country of origin plus the indication of the reservation of copyright, a recent decision of a district Federal Court of the United States has made the point questionable. The Habana Convention also adds considerably to the Buenos Aires requirement of a notice of the reservation of copyright, by stipulating that the statement must include the name of the copyright owner, the country of origin and the year of first publication.

There is a tendency in the Americas toward the abandonment of the burdensome system of formalities, as is attested by the extremely liberal provisions of the recent copyright laws of Argentina and Uruguay, which give unconditional protection to the works of foreigners, whether

resident or non-resident. To secure copyright protection in these countries, foreigners have merely to show that they have copyrighted their works in the country of origin. Also, as Brazil and Haiti are members of the Berne Union, foreigners may have protection in these countries without formalities, provided the work is published in a country which is a member of that Union.

The elimination of barriers to intellectual exchange through a progressive expansion of the international protection of the products of the human mind and spirit is one of the chief results to be expected from the realization of the objectives of the two movements described above. The copyright conference of Brussels and the steps that may be taken to fulfill the resolution of Lima on inter-American copyright thus have much significance in the effort to organize and maintain world peace.

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ON TROPICAL SHORES

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima, Peru, in 1938. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant

Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

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The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, intellectual and agricultural cooperation, juridical matters, and travel, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 100,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution.

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The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



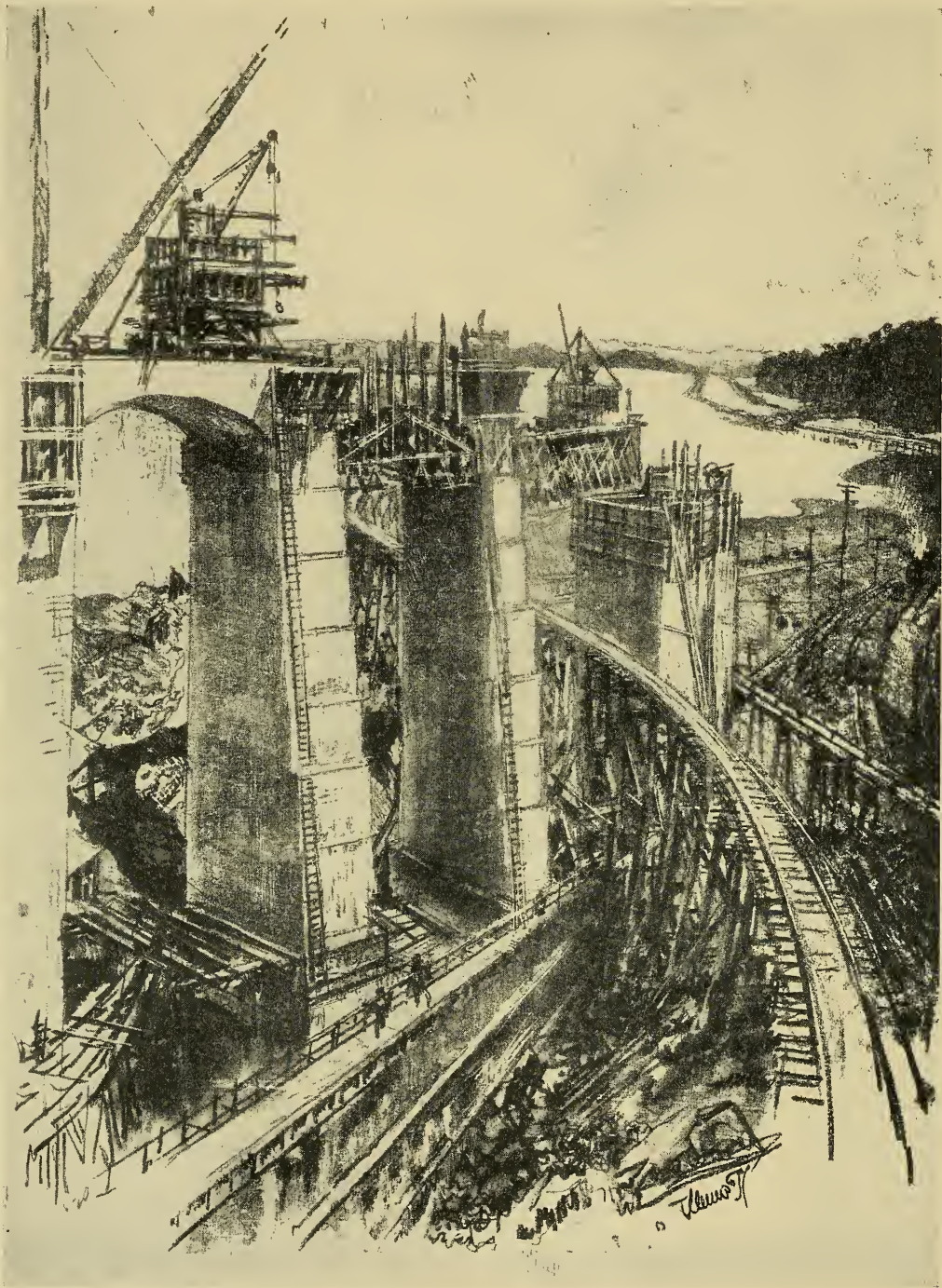
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in the "Readers' Guide" in your library.)

ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: PATIO OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION





Courtesy of the Library of Congress

THE APPROACHES TO GATUN LOCK, PANAMA CANAL

This lithograph is one of a series of 26 of Panama Canal construction made in 1912 by the late Joseph Pennell. They are impressive evidence of the achievements of the Canal builders in "the greatest liberty Man has ever taken with Nature," to use the phrase of Viscount Bryce.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIII, No. 8



AUGUST 1939

The Twenty-Fifth Anniversary of the Panama Canal

C. S. RIDLEY

Governor of the Panama Canal

A NOTABLE DATE in the history of the Americas will occur on August 15th of this year when the twenty-fifth anniversary of the opening of the Panama Canal to the sea-borne commerce of the world will be observed.

The enormous amount of traffic over the great trade routes of the world which has moved through the Canal and the great variety and volume of the commodities which have been shipped through the waterway during the quarter of a century since the Canal was opened prove the vast influence of the Panama Canal on the commerce of the world and especially that between the nations of North, Central and South America.

The waterway joining the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, which was dreamed of and planned for four centuries, has provided

during the past 25 years a new means for the development of social, political and commercial contacts and relationships among the nations of the Americas, which today have grown to be of great importance in world affairs.

One of the most beneficial influences of the construction of the Panama Canal has been its relation to the problem of health. The lessons in sanitation which were learned on the Isthmus of Panama during the construction of the Canal have been of untold benefit. When the construction of the Canal was begun by the United States Government in 1904 there was much scepticism in the United States and throughout the world as to whether the seemingly impossible task of making the Isthmus a healthful area could be accomplished.



Courtesy of the Panama Canal

BRIGADIER GENERAL CLARENCE S. RIDLEY, GOVERNOR OF THE PANAMA CANAL

Governor Ridley is the seventh Governor of the Panama Canal since the permanent organization for operation and maintenance was formed in 1914.

When yellow fever was eradicated in Panama, and malaria was brought under control; when adequate sewer and water systems were installed and dysentery eliminated; when the plague was driven out by competent supervision of the terminal ports, the great benefits to the Isthmus were quickly recognized, and other countries soon profited from the experience. Preventive measures against yellow fever were taken at ports and in cities of the southern United States as well as in Central and South America which had been known for years as endemic areas of the dread

disease. Other sanitation methods which had proved their worth on the Isthmus of Panama were copied elsewhere and today there are thousands of cities, towns and hamlets which are healthful and habitable places because of the adoption of health measures which had been successfully demonstrated in Panama.

The Panama Canal was opened to commercial traffic only a few days after the outbreak of the World War and the event was overshadowed by the ominous war clouds in Europe. Because of the disruption of world trade routes by the World War and the depression which followed, traffic through the Canal did not reach a normal level until about 1921. From that time until 1929 there was a consistent increase in the number of ships transiting the Canal and in the amount of commodities moved through the waterway. The peak year in the operation of the Canal was that which ended June 30, 1929, when 6,289 ships carrying 30,647,768 tons of cargo passed through the Canal.

There was a great decline in traffic through the Canal during the world-wide depression, the lowest point being reached in the fiscal year 1933, when the number of ships transiting the Canal was 4,162 and cargo tonnage aggregated 18,161,165. The gradual revival of world trade since that time has been reflected in the traffic through the Panama Canal. During the present fiscal year, beginning last July, traffic has been heavier than any year in the past ten years, and there is every indication that the silver anniversary of the opening of the Canal will mark the close of one of the most successful years in its history.

More than 100,000 large commercial vessels, carrying nearly 500,000,000 tons of cargo, have transited the Canal since its opening 25 years ago. In addition to the large ocean-going commercial vessels which have transited the Canal, approximately

8,000 small commercial vessels have passed through, and nearly 10,000 non-commercial ships, including United States war vessels, and other Government-owned ships; ships of the Panamanian and Colombian Governments; and vessels which passed through the Canal for dry-docking and repairs.

The half-billion tons of cargo transported through the Canal originated in almost every port of the world and represented almost every known commodity. This movement of cargo is vastly influenced by world economic conditions, which cause great fluctuations in the amounts and direction of the movement of even the most important commodities, such as minerals, wheat and other cereals, canned goods, manufactured goods, mineral oils, cotton and other commodities.

This vast amount of world trade flows over ten main trade routes. Of these the principal one is the United States inter-coastal trade. Nearly one-fourth of the cargo shipped through the Canal is moved over this route. Another great trade route, and one which has shown a decided increase in trade during the past year, is that between the west coast of North America and Europe.

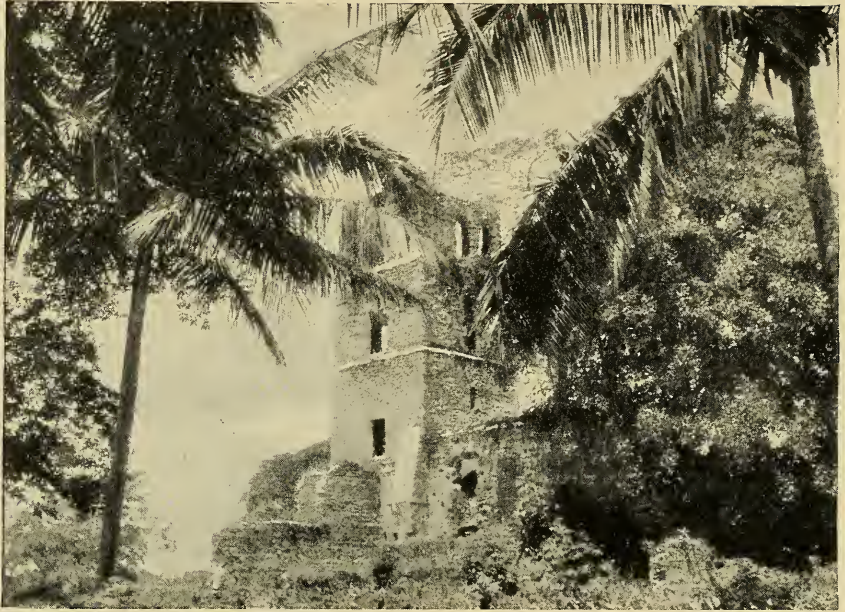
The two trade routes from the west coast of South America which go through the Canal, one to the United States and Canada and the other to Europe, are becoming increasingly important. Long before the Canal was opened to traffic this trade was an important factor in the commercial world. Some of the cargo originating in South American ports for Europe and the United States was then moved around South America and another substantial portion was brought to the Isthmus of Panama and transhipped across the Isthmus by the Panama Railroad, after its completion in 1855. From the time the Canal was opened, this trade became an

important part of the traffic through the waterway across the Isthmus. During the past fiscal year 2,651,856 tons of cargo were moved between the west coast of South America and the east coast of the United States, and 2,973,898 tons between Europe and South America, or a total of 5,625,754 tons over the two routes, approximately one-fifth of the 27,385,924 tons of cargo shipped through the Canal during that twelve-month period. Approximately 80 percent of this tonnage, made up of raw materials, such as ores, nitrates and mineral oils, was moved from South American ports to United States and European destinations.

Movement of cargo through the Canal from the Pacific to the Atlantic, generally, is approximately twice as great as that from Atlantic ports to Pacific destinations. This general pattern has been followed since the Canal was opened, the Pacific areas furnishing a great quantity of raw products which is shipped to the Atlantic destinations, while only relatively a small volume of manufactured goods is shipped from the Atlantic to Pacific ports.

Ships of American registry form the largest group of vessels using the Panama Canal and these American ships ply over all of the ten main trade routes, although most of them are on the intercoastal or United States-South America runs. The second largest group of any nationality is British, and the third largest is Norwegian.

Although of secondary importance to the movement of cargo, the passenger traffic through the Panama Canal is one of great significance. The number of strictly passenger vessels which visit Canal ports or transit the Canal is comparatively small but a large percentage of the ships which use the Canal or its terminal ports of Balboa and Cristobal are cargo-passenger vessels. Although the passenger traffic of the year ending last June was comparatively



THE RUINS OF OLD PANAMA

The riches shipped across the Isthmus in colonial days made it the object of many piratical attacks. The old city of Panama was destroyed in 1671 by Sir Henry Morgan; only these few ruins remain today.

light, the statistics indicate the importance of this trade. A total of 41,086 passengers disembarked and 38,888 embarked at Canal ports during the year. In addition, there were 131,837 transient passengers brought to the Isthmus by vessels calling at Canal ports.

Most of this travel is between the American nations and such a movement of people between countries of the two continents and Central America, which has been more or less constant for the past 25 years, has been a great factor in the spread of culture, understanding, and good will among the nations.

The Isthmus of Panama has one of the richest and most colorful historical backgrounds of any part of the two Americas. It was one of the first parts of the mainland to be discovered and explored by Christopher Columbus, who sailed along its coast

in 1502 on his fourth and last voyage to the New World, seeking an open-water passage to the rich Indies. The Isthmus soon became one of the most important provinces of Spain and from Panama expeditions of the hardy explorers and conquistadors set sail into the Pacific Ocean, which was discovered in 1513 by Vasco Núñez de Balboa. The expedition to Peru under Pizarro and many others were outfitted on the Isthmus, and after the conquests of Mexico, Peru and other rich lands along the Pacific coast, the trails across the narrow neck of land were used to transport the rich treasures to Spain.

The idea of a canal across the narrow Isthmus germinated soon after Balboa discovered the Pacific, even before geographers had learned that two vast, new continents had been discovered by Columbus. The earliest actual survey for a Panama

Canal is believed to have been made in 1534 under orders of King Charles V of Spain. He ordered his Governor of the Region of Panama to make a survey for a ship channel, hoping to eliminate the toilsome journey through the lush jungle for his shiploads of gold and treasure. The report to Charles V stated that no monarch, however mighty, could hope to effect a junction of the two oceans. Surveys and plans for a canal also were submitted during that century for canals at Tehuantepec, Mexico, across Nicaragua, along the route in Darien which Balboa had followed, and by way of the Atrato route, near the present Colombia-Panama border.

The idea of a ship canal to join the Atlantic and Pacific lay dormant throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth cen-

turies but it was revived again in the early part of the nineteenth century when the great geographer Humboldt visited Central and South America. He expressed the opinion that a canal might be constructed, and named no fewer than nine possible routes. His writings were given wide publicity and from that time until the great task was undertaken in 1880 by the French under the leadership of Count Ferdinand de Lesseps, who had achieved great fame as the builder of the Suez Canal, there was much talk of a canal. Numerous surveys had been made and several concessions were granted for the construction of canals in Mexico, Nicaragua and Panama.

During this interval there occurred an event which did much to hasten the day when the canal would be built. This was



Courtesy of the Panama Canal

GAILLARD CUT DURING CONSTRUCTION

Landslides during construction greatly increased the amount of excavation necessary and later interfered with operation. Since 1915, however, they have caused little interference and geologists say they will soon become entirely inactive.



Courtesy of the Panama Canal

THE NEW 10,000-TON PANAMA RAILROAD COMPANY LINER *PANAMA*

The first of three new vessels built by the Panama Railroad Company for service between New York and Cristóbal made its maiden voyage to the Canal Zone from New York early in May.

the completion of the Panama Railroad between the present cities of Panama and Colón, which was accomplished after five years of exceedingly hard labor. The railroad was completed in 1855 at a total cost of \$8,000,000 in money and at a great cost in human suffering and loss of life. It greatly stimulated trade and travel across the Isthmus and aroused much speculation as to the possibility of creating a man-made waterway between the two oceans.

Actual construction of the Canal was inaugurated nearly 60 years ago when de Lesseps arrived on the Isthmus of Panama in December 1879 to launch the enterprise. The first two years were spent mainly in making the necessary surveys and maps. The first "chantiers" or working sections were established by the French Canal Company, or Compagnie Universelle du Canal,

in 1882, along the proposed route and the work was resolutely pushed forward from that time until the company was forced into bankruptcy in 1889. The indomitable fight made by the French during those years is an epic story of the struggle of man against insurmountable odds.

After the failure of the French Canal Company in 1889 the work was abandoned during the time the affairs of the company were in the hands of a receiver. The New French Canal Company was formed during the next two years and work on the Canal was resumed in 1893. However, the limited capital of the new company did not permit extensive operations and most of the work was confined to the Culebra (now Gaillard) Cut area. American interest in the construction of the Canal became widespread at the end of the cen-

tury and in 1902 Congress decided to acquire the rights of the French Company. On May 4, 1904, all the property, rights, and concessions were transferred to the United States Government and the construction of the Canal was undertaken by the Americans.

The Panama Canal has often been called the greatest man-made wonder since the pyramids of Gizeh and one of the outstanding engineering feats accomplished by man. When it was opened to world traffic by the Panama Railroad Company steamer *Ancon* on August 15, 1914, the total excavation for the channel exceeded 220,000,000 cubic yards of material. Of this amount 29,908,000 cubic yards of the 78,000,000 cubic yards excavated by the French proved useful in the later work.

In addition to digging the channel proper there were other stupendous engi-

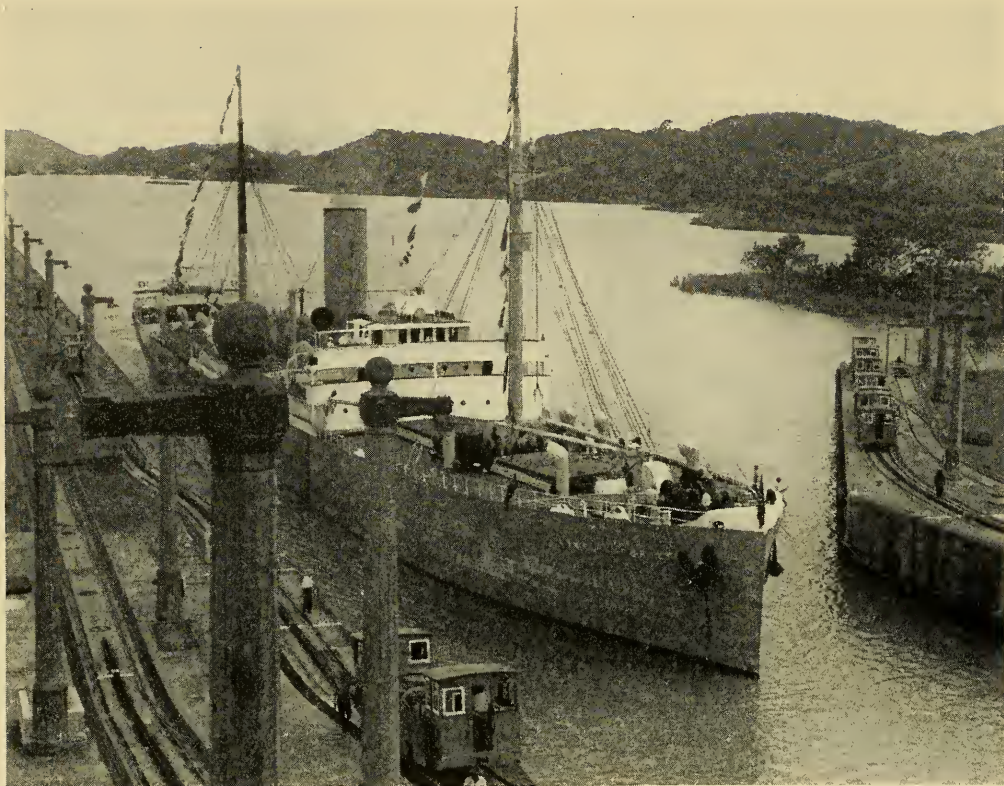
neering feats in connection with the construction of the Canal. Gatun Dam, which, when completed, was the largest earth dam ever constructed, is one of the vital keys to the Canal. It is one and a half miles long at its crest, which rises 105 feet above sea level, and is one half mile wide at its base. The completed dam contains 23,000,000 cubic yards of rock and impervious clay. The dam impounds the waters of the famous Chagres River and its tributaries, forming Gatun Lake, with a shoreline 1,100 miles long and an area of 164 square miles. At the time of its formation, Gatun Lake was the largest artificial body of water in the world, and is now exceeded in size only by the lake formed by the construction of Boulder Dam.

Among the most spectacular sights for the visitor to the Panama Canal today are



Courtesy of the Panama Canal

A MIGHTY WARSHIP OF THE UNITED STATES FLEET PASSING THROUGH
THE CANAL



Courtesy of the Panama Canal

THE 100,000TH TRANSIT OF THE PANAMA CANAL

On October 10, 1938, the S. S. *Steel Exporter*, a freighter plying between Los Angeles and London, made the 100,000th transit of the Canal by an ocean-going vessel of more than 300 tons net. It is shown entering Pedro Miguel locks on the Pacific side. The passage of the Canal, which is 51 miles long, takes about 6 hours.

the gigantic masses of masonry which form the three sets of twin locks at Gatun, Pedro Miguel and Miraflores. The visitor is usually surprised to learn that the tunnels underneath the locks are large enough to accommodate a modern train. These immense tunnels supply the water to the various lock chambers in sufficient quantity to raise the largest ship afloat from a lower to a higher level in the space of only a few minutes.

The locks all rest on rock bed foundations. Three flights of locks are joined together at Gatun and the excavation

necessary for these locks amounted to 6,000,000 cubic yards of earth. Approximately 1,000,000 cubic yards of material were excavated at Pedro Miguel Locks, which consist of only one step, and nearly 3,000,000 cubic yards of material were removed for the construction of the two-step flight of locks at Miraflores. The locks of the Panama Canal exceed in size any ever constructed previously. Approximately 4,500,000 cubic yards of concrete were poured to form these massive blocks of masonry. The locks are built in duplicate to permit traffic in both directions



Courtesy of the Panama Canal

THE S. S. *WASHINGTON*, THE LARGEST UNITED STATES VESSEL TO TRANSIT THE CANAL

Only the *Queen Mary* and the *Normandie* are too large to pass through the locks, which are 110 feet wide and have a usable length of 1,000 feet. There are three sets of twin locks, supplied with water by tunnels large enough to accommodate a railway train and operated entirely by electricity. Small engines pull each ship through the locks.

or in opposite directions simultaneously, and all twelve chambers have the same usable dimensions of 1,000 feet length and 110 feet width, sufficient to accommodate all but two ships now afloat, the *Queen Mary* and the *Normandie*.

Since the completion of the Canal, the Madden Dam has been constructed on the Chagres River 12 miles above the point where that stream joins the Canal channel at Gamboa. This is a masonry dam, 975 feet long, built for the purpose of supplementing the water storage of Gatun Lake during the dry season and to control the

flood waters of the Chagres River and its tributaries during the rainy season, which generally lasts from April to December. In addition, it supplements the supply of electrical current for the operation and maintenance of the Canal. It was built by private contractors and placed in use in 1934. Across the crest of the dam, which is 270 feet above sea level, runs an 18-foot concrete highway. It has a storage capacity of 22 billion cubic feet of water and increases by about three-fifths the dry season storage of water for the Canal.

At present, studies are being made of

plans to increase the capacity of the Canal by the addition of a third set of locks. These studies have been in progress now for nearly two years and have reached such a stage that actual construction might be started without considerable delay when appropriation of funds has been made by Congress.

Although the present traffic is not of sufficient volume to demand immediate action in the construction of the new locks, which will be much larger than the present

ones, it is now generally deemed advisable to proceed with the work as a measure of national defense and in preparation for the future needs of commercial traffic.

It is planned to construct the locks at a distance from the present ones and to construct the necessary by-pass channels which will afford, in many respects, the conveniences and advantages of two canals especially as related to the defense of the Panama Canal and the handling of the ever increasing stream of traffic through it.



THE PLAZA DE FRANCIA, PANAMA

This charming square commemorates the French builders of the Canal. On tablets underneath the arcades is given the history of plans for cutting a canal across the isthmus, beginning with the report made to Charles V of Spain in 1534.

San Agustín, Colombia

A New Key to Prehistoric American Civilization

GERMÁN ARCINIEGAS

AMONG THE monumental ruins that are now beginning to be discovered in America—after four hundred years during which they have been unknown to Europeans, who came in the sixteenth century to “discover” us—are those on San Agustín, a sacred mountain in one of the most remote parts of the Republic of Colombia. About three hundred stone statues, some of them gigantic, have been classified up to the present. They are images of gods, of warriors, of animals, which must have received the homage of the Indians five or six centuries ago; they were abandoned at some time and then covered slowly by the jungle until they were entirely hidden. It is clear that there is yet much to explore. In addition to these statues there should be architectural remains; in connection with the sacred place where these idols were found there should be a city whose ruins are yet to be located. But the number and size of the statues that have already been found is an indication of what the future holds in store for the archeologists, and even for us who without being archeologists look with curiosity at the most distant backdrop on the stage of our past.

Not long ago Professor Preuss, a learned German, undertook the first systematic exploration of the ruins of San Agustín. He then published an admirable work which has served as the basis for subsequent investigations. About two hundred statues were known when the book went to press. Only a few months ago Preuss died in his homeland, without having had

the good fortune of having seen how, since his trip to Colombia, clearings have been made on the mountain to show its primitive contours, carved by the Indians with care and ambition to make the greatest altar that man could imagine. What in the days of Preuss was only a disorderly display of idols has been converted into an imposing assembly, perhaps comparable only to the Wat Fra Keo of the Asiatic world.

An extraordinary imagination is not required to picture what this center of worship must have been when it was at the height of construction and thousands of Indians were occupied in carving the images of their deities, while priests offered sacrifices to gain the favor of the gods in war and in peace. Of all this nothing remained to be seen when the Spaniards arrived in America. Already even the echoes of the chisels that cut the images from the immortal rock had died away, and the nation that decorated the sacred mountain had emigrated to a place yet to be found. The chroniclers never mentioned these stones, nor did any Indians at the time of the Conquest tell the conquistadors anything about this people. It was not until some centuries later that men stumbled upon the remains of a civilization that is only now beginning truly to be discovered.

By a recent law, the Government of Colombia set aside the ruins of San Agustín as an archeological reservation and prohibited the exportation of statutes. A



Courtesy of Germán Arciniegas

THE HEAD OF A STATUE, SAN AGUSTÍN

Five hundred stone statues have already been found at San Agustín, in the Province of Huila in southern Colombia. This crossroads of migratory currents from the north and south may give the key to some of the problems concerning pre-Columbian civilizations that have long puzzled archeologists.

distinguished Spanish archeologist, Sr. Pérez de Barradas, was invited to draw up a plan for the excavations. And, what is more important, the training of Colombian technical personnel was begun, so that in the future the research into the past of America made in and around San Agustín may be conducted in a manner consonant with its importance.

To my mind, it is scarcely believable that it is only now that discoveries have begun to be made concerning the road followed in South America by the Mayan and Aztec civilizations in penetrating southern lands, and by the Incan cultures, that expanded naturally toward the north. In reality, the situation of the Republic of Colombia may be likened to a bridge over

which the two migrations had to cross from opposite directions. Indeed, from Costa Rica and the Isthmus of Panama to the Republic of Ecuador there is a vast zone which may be called the crossroads of the greatest and most ancient civilizations of America, and which will in the future provide the most important key to the prehistoric civilizations of the continent.

The stone remains of these civilizations are the best known, for it is they that have come to the attention of the general public. Much is said of the Mayan temples, the Aztec Calendar Stone, the ruins of Cuzco. It is possible that this popularity is due, in part, to the fact that the history of the Conquest is very closely linked to these

ruins. The great deeds of Cortés and of Pizarro had for a stage the ancient cities that were minutely described by the chroniclers, and that have come to the knowledge of our contemporaries through such comprehensive works as those that Prescott wrote about the conquests of Mexico and of Peru. But beside the civilizations that left stone monuments behind them there were others more difficult to identify, to reconstruct, because they left their traces in materials that were perishable or subject to decay. In the Republic of Colombia itself there are indications of many other such peoples, besides those of San Agustín; for example, the Quimbayas, workers in gold, and the Chibchas, whose wooden idols were burned



Courtesy of Germán Arciniegas

THE PROMINENT EYETEETH ARE AN INDICATION OF FEROCITY

by the missionary priests in the early days of the conquest.

If prehistoric American civilization is to be reconstructed it will be necessary to search in materials much less obvious than stone for vestiges of peoples who were perhaps more artistic, more refined and certainly happier than those pictured in the ferocious statues at San Agustín, or in those on Easter Island, at Tiahuanaco, or at some other sites in America. In Colombia, as in Central America, there were nations that made the most admirable gold ornaments, but the natural greed of the conquistadors resulted in most of them being melted down so that effigies of the Spanish kings could replace figures of Indian mythology.

Nevertheless, I believe that if gold is a

precious metal, stone is a noble material, and perhaps the idols of San Agustín are as important as the jewels of Atahualpa's treasury in forming an idea of what pre-Columbian America was like. At least, we should content ourselves with that which the jungle—not so greedy—has kept for four centuries, and not think about that which man—too fond of glitter—melted four hundred years ago.

The reason why there were a few peoples who left their history written in stone, although it was not the most brilliant of histories, is made clear reason by human geography. Vidal de la Blanche wrote some fascinating essays on this subject, accompanying them with maps that showed how each people made use, for its homes and its idols, of the materials of construction and ornamentation that it had at hand. If in Babylon brick was used, in Egypt stone, and in the German towns wood, it was not because one people was destined not to pass beyond the use of clay, nor the others to attain their height in stone-working, nor because some European centers had to stop with vegetable materials. The truth is that it is not the same to grow and multiply in the midst of stupendous forests as it is beside a quarry, and because of this, geography has controlled man, at least as long as he has not been able to perfect his means of communication.

Of the ancient civilizations that inhabited the territory of the present Republic of Colombia, perhaps the most superior, the most civilized, was the Chibcha, which did not leave grandiose vestiges, or the Quimbaya, which worked in gold, and not that of San Agustín, at whose monumental works generations will wonder. In fact, more extraordinary than sculpturing a face in stone to perpetuate the memory of a warrior may be the wise



Courtesy of Germán Arciniegas

ANOTHER STATUE, SAN AGUSTÍN

The Colombian Government is carefully preserving the archeological remains at San Agustín.



Courtesy of Germán Arciniegas

AN EAGLE DEVOURING A SERPENT

Several such figures found at San Agustín form an interesting link with Aztec culture.



THE MEXICAN COAT OF ARMS

According to Aztec legend, an eagle perched on a cactus and devouring a serpent indicated the site for what is now Mexico City.

organization of a people so they may produce and live in relative happiness.

It is true that sometimes stone and a high culture coincide with one another. It may happen that a people that has attained great progress in its internal organization learns to master the technique of making stone statues. But the coincidence is not essential. And it may even be said that, at first sight, stone and culture are not necessarily either parallel or synonymous terms.

Of the ancient civilization of San Agustín we have, as I have said, as yet exposed only a few objects. If three hundred statues have been discovered, some day we shall inevitably find, either nearby or at some distance, the remains of the great nation that carved them. The human remains found, whether skulls, ornaments,

or pottery, do not necessarily correspond to the grandeur of the sanctuary. Four or five skulls do not signify anything. In addition, data are lacking concerning the tools that were used by these ancient ancestors of the Colombians of today.

It happens that in South America today the sanctuaries of greatest renown are at immense distances from inhabited places. In Lajas, for example, near the Colombian-Ecuadorean frontier, there is an image of the Virgin that pilgrims from the center of Peru are accustomed to visit; and the miraculous image of the Virgin of Chiquinquirá, which was found by a laundress in a puddle and is greatly famed for the cures it performs for simple people, is visited by devout persons who come from hundreds of miles to beg its favors or to thank it for benefits already received. It is very possible that in San

Agustín something like this may have occurred and that the remains of the city whose children went to the sacred mountain should be sought at a great distance from the mountain itself.

As much as it may surprise us today, it is evident that in pre-Columbian America the Indians covered great distances with relative ease. Half of South America was crossed by roads constructed by the Incas, and since these roads were paved with stone we may consider them better than those of our time in the same mountains. But it is unnecessary to venture more or less doubtful hypotheses for already, at a good distance from San Agustín but within the same general area, and in territory explored a few months ago by Colombian archeologists, enormous caves have been found decorated with paintings in red and black, impressive because of the great earthenware receptacles similar to those the Incas decorated in the same colors. These caves, with arches formed with rare perfection, may very possibly pertain to the same civilization as San Agustín.

Not many months ago, Professor Paul Rivet, the learned Director of the Museum of Man in Paris, visited the ruins of San Agustín, and with his advice the latest plans of the Government of Colombia are being developed for the preservation of the statues. A Colombian archeologist, Sr. Gregorio Hernández de Alba, is already working with Professor Rivet. It is safe to assert that, thanks to these initiatives, it will very soon be possible to visit at San Agustín one of the most interesting archeological sites in America.

Even today access to San Agustín is not difficult. Commercial aviation has extended comfortable and economical lines throughout the interior of Colombia. The trip to Bogotá, which until not many years ago might form the subject of an Odyssey up the Magdalena River, is made today

by plane in a little less than three hours, leaving from the seaport of Barranquilla. And one may go without difficulty from Bogotá to San Agustín in two days, making the greater part of the trip by train or automobile. Only the last two hours of the trip are passed on horseback over ground that is not very rolling, in the opinion of travelers. For us Colombians all roads are flat.

The archeologists who have studied the stones of San Agustín are very restrained in advancing hypotheses. Professor Rivet indicated some similarities between certain stones here and Mayan ruins. Professor Preuss shows in his book a series of engravings comparing the statues of San Agustín with those of Tiahuanaco, the amazing site left by the predecessors of the Incas on the shores of Lake Titicaca. For the ordinary inquirer it is very interesting to learn that there are in San Agustín two groups of monuments portraying the battle of the eagle and the serpent, a battle famous in Aztec mythology and now blazoned on the Mexican coat-of-arms.

From among the statues of San Agustín there has been taken to Bogotá a figure that perhaps portrays a laborer, because he has a chisel in one hand and a mallet in the other. The identical subject is found, developed in the same form, among the statues on Lake Titicaca. On the other hand, there are in San Agustín portrayals of the serpent with the head stylized as in the Mayan ruins; others of two figures superimposed—which the archeologists call the double I—exactly as in the ruins on Lake Titicaca; and finally waterworks, for baths, very similar to those which have been found in Peru. There is, therefore, an entire series of similarities which cannot be considered accidental but which, at the proper time, should be submitted to a penetrating and complete investigation

carried out with the fullest scientific accuracy.

We must believe, however, that once this enigma at San Agustín is solved the most serious obstacle to discovering the relations between the ancient inhabitants of North America and South America will be removed for, as I stated at the beginning, the lands neighboring the Isthmus of

Panama form a bridge over which our most remote ancestors must have crossed. And if on the stones of this bridge there is the imprint of a clear trail—as that of San Agustín appears to be—perhaps we are at the door that may lead us to a more exact knowledge of what human life was in this hemisphere before the arrival of Christopher Columbus.

Córdoba

AGNES STEPHENS ZIMMER

AFTER PIZARRO conquered the Inca Empire, there was so much dissension among the Spanish conquistadors in Peru that the king of Spain appointed Vaca de Castro to pour oil on the troubled waters. In order to give the men something fresh to think about, they were sent out from Lima to discover new lands. Expeditions left for all parts, and some years later, in 1573, Jerónimo Luis de Cabrera founded, far to the southeast, a small settlement, which he called Córdoba the Flat. The exact spot chosen for the city was a bowl-like depression through which a good-sized stream flowed. Geologists of today think that this great bowl was the bed of a lake in ages past. All about the settlement there was a plain which extended far to the north, south, and east, but only a few miles to the west, where the explorers found an isolated range of mountains. The stream had its source in the brooks and springs of these mountains and was given the name of Río Primero, the Spanish for First River.

The colonists did not have to chop down whole forests before they could begin to

plant crops, as the earliest colonists in the United States did; there were practically no trees, only the scrub which grows in a dry climate. Those who settled here soon learned that from April to October it rained rarely in this section, but that in the summer season—from October to April—plenty of water fell. Often the storms were torrential, but the rain, falling on sun-baked land, helped the vegetation little. These rain storms sometimes flooded the early settlements; brooks turned into raging torrents for a few hours. That still happens today, but engineers are slowly building up a defense against these caprices of nature.

I cannot imagine anything more ideal for these early settlers than the Roman (and Spanish) type of house with an inner court, which was adopted in this colony. In winter the nights were cold but the days were balmy, and while it was impossible to sit in the rooms for long periods without a fire, the courtyard was very comfortable. All during the winter months the sun poured its warmth upon Córdoba from an almost cloudless sky, so that spending the



Photograph by Gervart

A CHAPEL IN THE CÓRDOBA HILLS

This was built by the Jesuits in 1650.

daylight hours out of doors made for comfort as well as health. The summer season, on the other hand, was long and hot, and a courtyard, full of trees and plants, where there was nearly always a breeze (for Córdoba is a windy place), was a spot where privacy and fresh air could be obtained.

The situation of the city made it especially warm in summer, but the inhabitants, whenever circumstances made it possible, moved out to the mountains, which were delightfully cool in comparison. Many people who went there enjoyed the country life so much that they stayed on permanently, staking out large claims for themselves, raising cattle, and becoming almost self-sufficient with the aid of their Indian servants. Now these big estates have been divided, but in some places the old walnut trees which the early settlers

planted and the chapels which they never failed to build are still standing.

The distance between Buenos Aires and Córdoba is about 450 miles, and since the country is flat, men could make the trip very easily on horseback if they were willing to sleep on the ground at night. However, since such a journey made by oxcart took at least thirty days, it was not undertaken lightly. The fierceness of the Indians along the Río de la Plata as well as Spain's policy with reference to trade conspired to keep Buenos Aires from developing rapidly, so the residents of Córdoba were more inclined to look to Lima, Peru, for guidance and supplies than to the city which was later on to become the national capital. It would have required courage in those days to prophesy that Buenos Aires would one day be called "the Paris of South America."

Look at the map and imagine what it must have meant in 1554 to have been born in Asunción, Paraguay, of noble Spanish lineage, later to have gone to Lima, Peru, for your education, and after deciding to become a priest, to travel up and down the provinces of Tucumán, Santiago del Estero, and Córdoba as bishop. That in brief gives us the life of Fernando de Trejo y Sanabria, the man who did more than anyone else to give Córdoba its individual character. At the turn of the century the Roman Catholic Church decided to place a seminary here for the training of its priests, and later the bishop, who was the moving spirit in this educational venture, added cultural courses, endowing the institution with his personal fortune. The courses given were on a par with those studied in the universities of Europe at that time. Later the seminary for priests became an

institution apart, the university continuing without a break to this day. A statue of the founder stands in the courtyard of the principal building of the Universidad Nacional de Córdoba and the street on which it is located is called Obispo Trejo y Sanabria.

For three hundred and twenty-five years the university has had an enormous influence upon the trend of development in this region. If we study the history of Paraguay, Chile, Bolivia, Uruguay, and even other more distant countries, we find that their leaders, in former years, received their training here also. Córdoba has often been called *La Docta Ciudad* (The Learned City) and it deserves the name. It is not necessary to go into detail with regard to the development of the university, for we find the same evolution here as in all institutions of learning founded so



Copyright by Bourquin and Kohlmann

THE CÓRDOBA HILLS

The sun and breezes of these beautiful hills draw many visitors the year round to fine country houses and luxurious hotels and to unassuming cottages and inns.



THE UNIVERSITY AND ITS FOUNDER

Bishop Trejo y Sanabria founded the University of Córdoba more than 300 years ago.

long ago. However, it is interesting to compare the demands made on students of the seventeenth century with those of our day. Among the university regulations of that time we find the following: "The courses shall extend over a period of six months and a day. In order to pass from one to another an examination will not be required; it will be sufficient to prove before the secretary by means of two sworn witnesses that the student has heard a certain number of classes." How the girls and boys of today would rejoice if they were allowed to prove their knowledge in the same way!

A few years after the university was established, the need for a preparatory

school was felt, and Duarte Quirós, another priest, started a boarding school for boys, called Monserrat. This school had its third centenary celebration in 1937. It no longer has a boarding department, nor is it under the church today; it has adapted itself, as has the university, to the educational trends of the times. How much more we expect of our youth today than we did even one hundred years ago! The early pupils of Monserrat would turn in their graves today if they knew what the present generation is learning of science, literature, languages, history, and mathematics. Surely the human race ought to evolve much more rapidly in the next five hundred years than it has in the past million, considering how illiteracy is being done away with, science is gaining the upper hand over superstition, and reason is taking the place of emotion in governing our acts. We grow impatient because not as much as we should like is being accomplished in our generation, but a glance over the past shows us how far along the road we have traveled and how our speed is increasing with the years.

The Church has always been very powerful in Córdoba. Until President Sarmiento invited a group of women from the United States to come down and found normal schools in 1870, education was entirely in the hands of the priests and nuns. The different orders received pieces of land in the town when the city was first built and churches were erected with the quarters for the monks and nuns behind. The Jesuit Church was constructed early in the seventeenth century, and its thick walls ought to stand until doomsday.

Among his various projects Domingo Sarmiento (who is considered by many to have been the finest president Argentina ever had) gave an impulse to the development of science by founding the national observatory. Because of its clear

sky Córdoba was chosen for the site of the new institution, which was erected in 1870. The first director was Benjamin Gould, an American, who remained eight years and did an excellent piece of research work. There are probably many persons who know of this inland city because of the astronomical work which has been done there who would never have heard of it otherwise.

What an important thing water is in our lives! The more civilized we are the more we want to use. As the city grew the problem of the water supply forced itself upon the attention of everybody. Finally in 1888, after a great deal of reconnoitering, the ideal place was found for building a dam in the mountains. Now it was possible to store up the water which fell so torrentially in summer, build aqueducts and irrigation ditches, and increase the amount of arable land. It is marvelous what man can do when he works with

nature! In reality the rainfall of Córdoba compares very favorably with that of London, being 700 mm. a year (28 in.); the whole difficulty has been the uneven distribution. The last ten years have seen the building of other dams in the province which will greatly change the life of this part of the country.

Even yet you can find now and then a person who remembers the days when long journeys were made in oxcarts. About seventy years ago it was possible to go from Córdoba to Rosario by train, but the rest of the trip to Buenos Aires had to be made by boat. Then you counted on a three days' journey. Now you have your choice of three ways of going to Buenos Aires; you can travel in a day or night train, which takes from nine to twelve hours, according to the one you choose; you can drive in your own car over an excellent road, your speed governed only by the amount of prudence which you decide to



Photograph by Gervaeert

THE COURTHOUSE, CÓRDOBA



Foto Williams

A SHOE FACTORY

This factory, one of several in Córdoba utilizing Argentine leather, is particularly interested in safety measures for its employees.

exercise; or you can step into an airplane (run by Americans) which will get you there in three hours. Planes and trains also run in other directions. If those Chilean students of three centuries ago, who made the dangerous trip across the Andes on muleback over the ancient trails and then traveled along the dusty road through the province of San Luis to reach the University of Córdoba, could see their descendants stepping into an airplane at Santiago and stepping out again in Córdoba, clean and fresh after a three-hour delightful ride over snow-capped mountains, they would feel indeed that the age of miracles had arrived.

Two of the three railroads which pass through Córdoba were built by English capital and there are still some Englishmen working in the higher administrative

posts, although not so many as formerly. There are branches of foreign commercial houses in the city and an English, an Italian, a German, and a Spanish bank, which serve the representatives of those nations here. Foreign names are heard aplenty, but Córdoba no longer needs to import university professors or engineers; Argentines are equipped to fill all higher positions.

Wars and rumors of war certainly do not advance civilization, and the youth of Argentina who wish to go abroad to study, sensing this, are choosing the United States instead of Europe for their graduate work in these days. In 1932 a group of young men who admired the United States and who wished that her culture were better known in Córdoba started an association there with that as their aim. Two



Courtesy of "La Voz del Interior"



MODERN BUILDINGS IN CÓRDOBA
Above: The quarters and service station of the
Automobile Club. At side: An office building
owned by an insurance company.

Courtesy of Art Studio



Copyright by Kohlmann

IN THE HOUSE OF THE VICEROY, CÓRDOBA

It is interesting to observe the similarities and differences between Argentine and American colonial furnishings.

American women were asked to teach English, for the founders felt that such classes would be an entering wedge for interesting in the association people who perhaps would not otherwise join. Since that time many lectures have been given by Argentines just returned from the United States, and thus erroneous ideas about that country have been corrected. It is marvelous to find out how many things the Argentines think about us that are not so! The American films are by far the most popular here, and since the movies aim to entertain, it is natural that they should portray, not the regular, humdrum happenings of life, but the spectacular. To judge by the films, one would conclude that American universities are institutions for training men to play football, and that home life is non-existent in the United States.

It should be added that if the Argentine-

American Cultural Institute is filling a need in Córdoba, groups founded on similar lines could well be started in cities in the United States. My experience has been that while Argentines have many wrong ideas about us, Americans have no ideas at all about Argentina. I have spent most of my time in the last twenty-seven years in Argentina, where I have had the opportunity to become acquainted with Europeans as well as with people born in the country; I have also been in other South American republics and England, and I have come to realize that everywhere people are inclined to jump at conclusions about other nations even though they have very few facts at their disposal. Money spent today in giving young people a first-hand knowledge of the life of other countries would save the cost of armaments tomorrow.

Until recently Córdoba has occupied itself with little else than the provincial gov-

ernment and its educational institutions, but changes are coming which are pulling people out of the old ruts. The national government has built a large airplane factory here which requires an entirely new type of skill; cement is being made in the nearby suburbs; two large flour mills have up-to-date machinery; very modern shoe factories have been erected; and lime kilns produce as good lime as is to be found anywhere in the world. The Córdoba Hills are the abode of many of the richest families of Buenos Aires during the summer months and they demand good roads and hotels. There are so many beautiful places within a journey of an hour or two from Córdoba by car, that it is the paradise of the picnic lover. The population of the city has trebled in the last thirty years and it is now estimated to be about

three hundred thousand. Omnibuses make it possible for people of moderate means to move out to the suburbs, where modern, detached houses are being built, surrounded by gardens. Every year brings improvements to the stores, the city pavements, the plazas and the type of house being put up. Now that lots in the city are more expensive, the old-fashioned style of house with its large courtyard is no longer practical, so the architects are copying the American one-family house and the apartment building. Smaller families and more expensive domestic service have changed circumstances. Those of us who have watched the phenomenal development of the city during the past twenty-five years feel that Córdoba is destined to become the Chicago of Argentina in the not far distant future.





Up and Down in the Americas

A Geographical Outline for Tourists

THE PROSPECTIVE traveler to Latin America from the United States finds that a brief course in geography is a prerequisite to intelligent preparation. If he is planning an American "Grand Tour," he is struck by the fact that the lake district of southern Argentina and Chile is about as far south of the equator as New York is north. Then he remembers that he will run the gamut of season and climate, for he will pass through the entire Torrid Zone to the South Temperate, where the seasons are opposite to those in the North Temperate, and when visiting such highland capitals as Mexico City, Quito and La Paz will find that because of their altitude they are cold at night. Finally, he has to attend to the routine matter of visas or tourist cards, and becomes newly aware that although the Americas south

of the United States cover an area only about 2.3 times as great as that of his own country, they are divided into 20 independent nations, of many different sizes and shapes.

In the settlement of America by the Spaniards and Portuguese geography was a determining factor. The early discoverers and explorers sought in the New World tangible and durable evidence of wealth—gold, silver, other metals, and precious stones. To find such treasures, no effort was too great for the intrepid invaders, and in the first hundred years after Columbus the Europeans had explored roughly the whole of the continent south of what is now the United States, braving tropical lowlands, breathtaking altitudes, and hostile Indians. Wherever there was a promise of wealth, a settle-

ment was established, whether conditions were favorable or not. Sometimes the promise was illusory, and the settlement dwindled in importance or was abandoned; in other cases the promise was more than amply fulfilled, and cities grew up that even in colonial times could vie in size, population and magnificence with European capitals.

The following table gives the capitals of the American republics and their present population:

Country	Capital	Population
Argentina	Buenos Aires	2, 317, 755
Bolivia	La Paz	151, 000
Brazil	Rio de Janeiro	1, 585, 234
Chile	Santiago	843, 870
Colombia	Bogotá	271, 123
Costa Rica	San José	63, 436
Cuba	Habana	552, 133
Dominican Republic	Ciudad Trujillo	71, 297
Ecuador	Quito	107, 192
El Salvador	San Salvador	98, 555
Guatemala	Guatemala City	116, 000
Haiti	Port-au-Prince	125, 000
Honduras	Tegucigalpa	40, 000
Mexico	Mexico City	1, 229, 576
Nicaragua	Managua	60, 342
Panama	Panama	82, 872
Paraguay	Asunción	90, 000
Peru	Lima	291, 531
United States	Washington	627, 000
Uruguay	Montevideo	684, 036
Venezuela	Caracas	135, 253

A relief map of the Americas makes prominent the outstanding characteristics of the continent, the rugged mountain wall that follows the Pacific coast from Alaska to Cape Horn, with a spur in northern South America to the Atlantic coast of Venezuela. These mountains are not always a single range; in many places they separate into two, sometimes into three, divisions. On the lofty plateaus

lying between them, at altitudes of 5,000 to 12,000 feet, are located many important capitals, from Mexico City to La Paz. South America has no parallel eastern range, as has the United States; instead, there are two tablelands, one with occasional high peaks, extending across southern Venezuela and touching northern Brazil and the Guianas, while the other, ranging from 1,000 to 3,000 feet in altitude, covers the great eastern point of the continent, occupied by Brazil. North America has one great river system, lying in the center of the United States: the Mississippi and its affluents; South America has four: the Magdalena, the Orinoco, the Amazon, and the Río de la Plata, an estuary into which flow the Paraná and the Uruguay.

These facts will have been brought home especially to those who have seen and studied the great relief map on permanent exhibit at the Pan American Union, or the illuminated map, showing communications as well as geographic features, at the exhibit of the Union at the New York World's Fair.

Moreover, the 20 Latin American republics extend from the North Temperate Zone to within 12 degrees of the Antarctic Circle (1,000 miles farther south than the Cape of Good Hope). South America, at 5 degrees south of the equator, has a width several hundred miles greater than the United States. And although Uruguay is the only one of these republics that does not lie wholly or in part in the Torrid Zone, altitude in Latin America is more important than latitude for, other factors being equal, an elevation of about 1,000 feet makes 3° F. difference in temperature.

How will geographical factors affect the traveler going down the east coast of South America to Buenos Aires, across to Chile, up the west coast through Central America and Mexico and home via the Antilles?



A BEACH IN RIO

A shore drive of 11 miles, one side of which is formed by beaches and the other by apartment houses, hotels, and residences, offers a series of views of Rio's magnificent setting.

The 5,000-mile trip to Rio, the first Latin American port of call, takes 13 days, with a stop at Barbados en route. Summer clothes are in order on shipboard, for the greater part of the trip is in the tropics, although the trade winds temper the heat. The ship passes the mouth of the Amazon too far out at sea for the great muddy fresh-water torrent that stains the Atlantic for more than 100 miles to be visible. (For those who would like first-hand impressions of the world's mightiest river and the jungle, there are large liners and airplanes that penetrate 1,000 miles inland to the city of Manaus, while smaller ocean vessels may continue 1,300 miles beyond to Iquitos.)

Rio de Janeiro is the capital of the Portuguese-speaking nation of America. There is a geographical reason for that, too. During the great period of discovery

and exploration, the Portuguese had made pioneer voyages around Africa to India and other parts of Asia and to the East Indies. In order that Spanish and Portuguese imperial ambitions might not conflict, the Treaty of Tordesillas was signed in 1494, dividing the western world and giving to Portugal the right to lands east of a line drawn north and south 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands and to Spain those west of the line. As that line passes through the eastern projection of the continent at the mouth of the Amazon, Portugal explored and settled the region known as Brazil.

Its setting makes Rio de Janeiro one of the most beautiful cities in the world, for hills and mountains studded with tropical verdure form its backdrop. Lying just within the tropics, its seasons are the wet and the dry, rather than the hot and the

cold, with the months from June through September the most pleasant, although the average mean temperature varies only about ten degrees throughout the year, from 68.7° to 79° F.

Even the briefest visit to Brazil is incomplete without a trip to São Paulo, the commercial metropolis of Brazil, overnight by train or less than two hours by air. Situated on the Tropic of Capricorn at an altitude of nearly 3,000 feet, the city enjoys a more temperate climate and bracing air than the national capital, and a topcoat will be needed at night, if not always during the day. There are frosts in June, and winter clothing is in order for several months.

Those who take the side trip to São Paulo usually rejoin the ship at Santos, the leading coffee port of the world and a delightful seaside city. The journey in a luxurious modern train will give the traveler his first contact with the engineering triumphs characteristic of so much of the railway construction on the continent, for in two hours the railroad drops 3,000 feet through picturesque scenery.

Two days after leaving Santos he will have covered the 900-odd miles to Montevideo, the capital of Uruguay, the only Latin American republic lying wholly in the Temperate Zone. There he will find the familiar succession of the seasons, but in reverse, June, July, and August being the winter months. But winters are not severe and summers not too hot, and the splendid beaches that extend for miles along the south Atlantic shore invite swimmers and other enthusiastic summer visitors.

One hundred thirty miles across the Río de la Plata and only overnight by boat lies the capital of the progressive nation of Argentina, Buenos Aires, the second city in size on the American continent. Winter is slightly colder and summer warmer than in Montevideo. Fur coats are worn in

winter by women who have them but, as in Washington, they are a luxury rather than a necessity. The large hotels have central heating. This great city has manifold attractions at all seasons of the year; its gaiety and energy charm the visitor.

It is from Buenos Aires that the visit to Paraguay will probably be made, a few hours by air, 52 hours by train, or two and a half days by boat up the Paraná and Paraguay Rivers. The capital, Asunción, although only about 125 miles farther from the equator than São Paulo, lies in the heart of the continent, and so is much warmer than the Brazilian city.

Asunción is in the wet and dry, rather than the hot and cold season belt, and the months with the least rainfall are June, July, and August, while August and September are also the coolest when, because of cold winds from the southern pampas, warm clothes may not be amiss. No visitor will wish to leave Asunción without some of its famous handmade lace, called ñandutí.

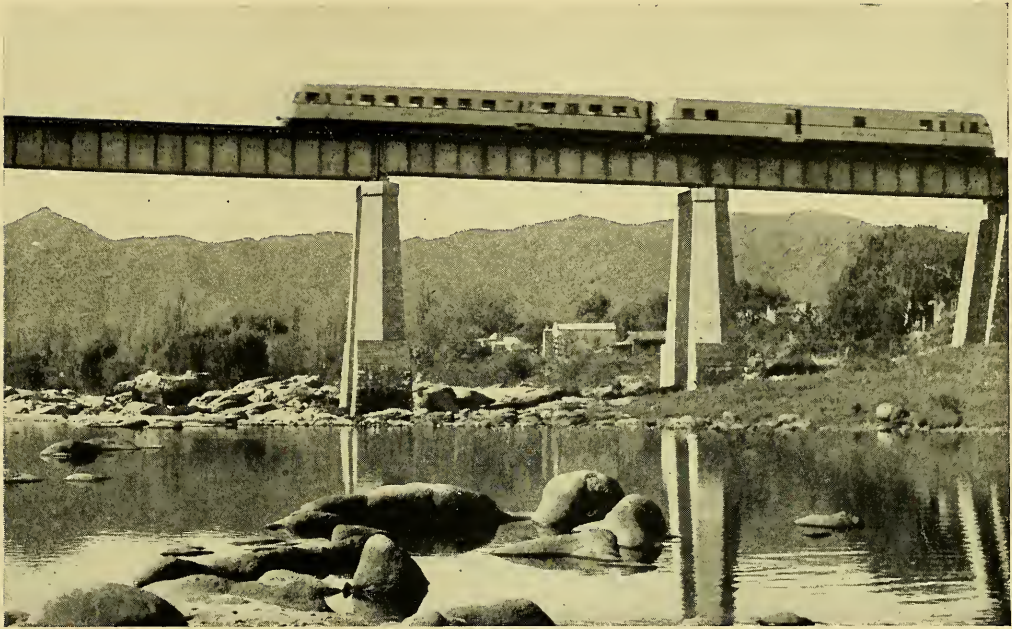
After the traveler has returned to Buenos Aires and is ready to turn his face westward, he has a choice of route and means of transportation. For the first time he will make the acquaintance of the Andes, that mighty mountain wall whose loftiest peak, Aconcagua (23,080 feet high), lies in Argentina near the Chilean border.

If it is summer in the southern hemisphere, the route via Nahuel Huapí National Park and across the border to the Chilean lake district (often called "the Switzerland of America") is very tempting. In this way he will see some of the broad wheatfields and the sky-defined pampas where the superior Argentine beef is bred, as well as the barren upper stretches of Patagonia, before reaching the marvelous scenery of the lake playgrounds on both sides of the border. This trip is not feasible from June to October because of snow,



AVENIDA ROQUE SÁENZ PEÑA, BUENOS AIRES

The Argentine capital, now the second city in size on the American continent, is handsome, gay and energetic.



Copyright by Bourquin and Kohlmann

A DIESEL TRAIN

This train, which operates in the Córdoba Hills, is a shorter edition of those which run between São Paulo and Santos in Brazil and between Santiago and the Chilean lake district.

and may offer some difficulties in the latter month.

The traveler may, however, prefer to go directly from one capital to the other, by train and automobile, if service on the interrupted section of the railway across the Andes has not been restored. The train leaves every Wednesday evening and passes through the province of Mendoza, the heart of the wine-producing section of Argentina, in the foothills of the Andes; the motor car goes directly by the most famous peace monument in the world, the Christ of the Andes. If 24 hours seems too long to spend on the journey, the 6-hour air trip is available three times a week. This is an unforgettable experience, when one is neighbor for a few moments to Aconcagua and its hoary fellows, "silent in pure, thin air."

Santiago, the handsome capital of Chile,

lies in the heart of the agricultural section of the republic, the central third of the long narrow country, between the nitrate deserts to the north and the cold, rainy southern archipelago. The city enjoys a fine spring-like climate for most of the year, with colder weather in winter, when light falls of snow sometimes occur. The accessibility of the snow-clad Andes has recently made skiing a popular sport (a team of skiers from the United States went to Chile last July for the third consecutive year to compete with Chilean athletes.)

Northward bound, the traveler sails from the chief port of Chile, Valparaíso, whose climate is similar to that of Santiago, although with less variation in temperature. As his ship skirts the coast, he can see the Andes behind the shore, green at first, then bleak and tawny as the desert begins. He will remember that this whole

range is composed of comparatively new mountains, still adjusting themselves to geological strains and stresses, as active volcanoes and occasional earthquakes testify.

Although he may land at Antofagasta and take the 30-hour train journey to La Paz, 722 miles away, the more customary route is from the port of Mollendo, in Peru. A stop at Arequipa, lying in a beautiful valley 7,600 feet above sea level, will prepare him for the altitudes he will experience in Bolivia.

En route between Arequipa and Puno a side trip not to be missed is to Cuzco. The capital of the Incas during the centuries immediately preceding the Spanish conquest, Cuzco was long a flourishing city, and many of the colonial buildings are built on Inca foundations. In the immediate outskirts are many interesting ruins, such as Sacsahuaman, but the most

striking, which require at least a long day's excursion, are at Machu Picchu, rediscovered and explored by former United States Senator Hiram Bingham. The train ride along the valley from Juliaca to Cuzco is particularly beautiful, and the bright garments of the Indians, varying at every village, add color and interest to the scene.

At Puno he will take an overnight trip by steamer on Lake Titicaca, the highest body of steam-navigable water in the world—nearly two and a half miles above sea level. At the other end of the lake he is three and a half hours from La Paz, at 12,000 feet. New apartments and factories show that it has gone in for modern architecture. Although the Bolivian capital lies well within the tropics, the combination of altitude and cold winds from the surrounding mountains give it an annual mean temperature of 50° F. And as the



Photograph by Curphey and Jofré, Ltda.

HOTEL O'HIGGINS, VIÑA DEL MAR

Viña del Mar is one of the most famous Chilean seaside resorts. Its casino and luxurious hotel are crowded with visitors in the summer season, from December to March.



LA PAZ, BOLIVIA

Higher than this city, set at an altitude of 12,000 feet, towers the majestic Andine peak of Illimani.

rarefied atmosphere makes any undue exertion a great effort for those unaccustomed to living in high places, warm clothing is very much in order. A hot water bag is most comforting at night.

An interesting day's excursion from La Paz is to the ruins at Tiahuanaco, which may be glimpsed from the train. The carved monoliths belong to a civilization far older than the Inca Empire.

Sailing again northward, from Mollendo to Callao, the Andes still bound the eastern horizon. Lima, only eight miles inland from Callao, is the one west coast capital at sea level. Proud of its colonial palaces, it also boasts fine new sections. Although much nearer the equator than Rio de Janeiro, on the Atlantic, Lima is a great deal cooler because of the Humboldt Current, which sweeps up from the Antarctic regions. Although the annual rainfall

is slight—totaling 1.89 inches—heavy mists obscure the sun for much of the year. January, February and March are generally sunny and warm. The interior of many buildings is chilly, because the use of central heating is not widespread.

From Lima an exciting day's excursion can be taken by rail halfway up the Andes and back. If more time is available, a motor trip to the great plateau lying between the eastern and western branches of the Andes, and down to the "montaña", as the Peruvians call the eastern jungle forest region, is most worthwhile. This highest highway in the world surmounts the Andes at an altitude of practically three miles.

The entrance to Ecuador, which takes its name from the equator which passes through it, is the modern port of Guayaquil, 30 miles inland at the head of the



A PATIO IN AREQUIPA

gulf of the same name. The city is a shining example of modern progress in sanitation, for a quarter-century ago it was disease-ridden and shunned by vessels engaged in international trade. Now it is a Class A port, thriving and populous. It has a fairly constant high temperature, less comfortable during the rainy months from December to May.

Quito, although only an hour and twenty minutes away by air, is a long day's journey by rail; in fact, until within the past few months, it was a two-day journey, broken at Riobamba, many people preferring to make the Riobamba-Quito stage by motor. The railway, completed in 1908, was one of the last major lines constructed in South America, because of the engineering difficulties encountered in scaling the precipitous Andes (in one 50-

mile stretch the ascent is 9,700 feet, and a double switchback just above Sibambe lifts the train 300 feet in a quarter of a mile). The sights along the route vary from sugarcane, bananas and egrets to snow-capped volcanoes.

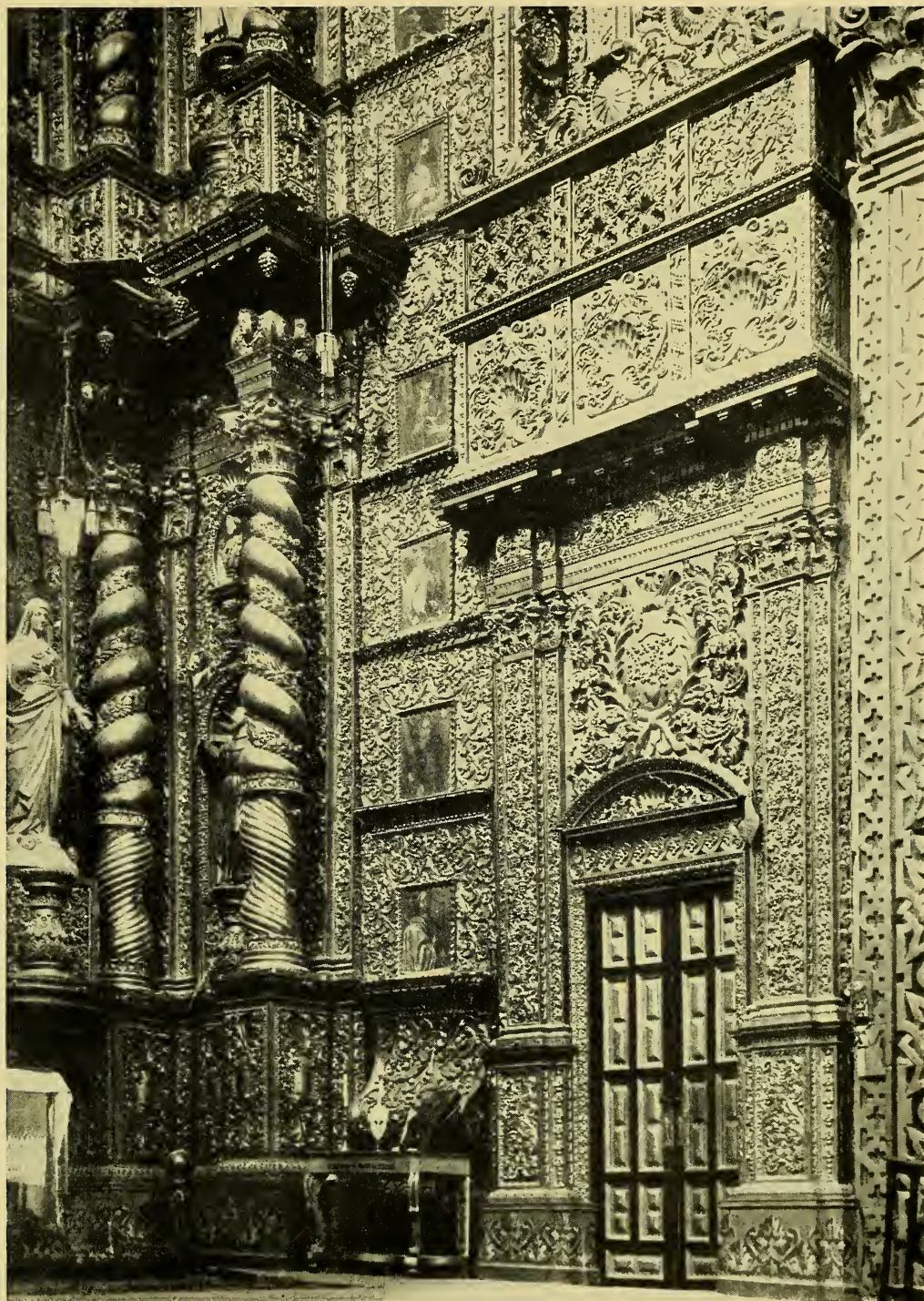
Quito is 17 miles south of the equator but at an altitude of 9,350 feet. The traveler who has not been warned learns to his cost that warm clothing is an essential. The sun during the day is bright—Quiteños boast that they enjoy "eternal spring"—but the temperature falls with the sudden tropical darkness, and in the unheated buildings there is a penetrating cold. It is also cool in the magnificent churches, which have some of the finest carvings in the world. The rains are heaviest from January to May.

In Colombia the difficulties of communication between Bogotá and the coasts of both the Atlantic and the Pacific explain why its Scadta is the oldest commercial air transportation company in continuous operation in the world.

The traveler from the south who does not wish to use international and Colombian air transportation will disembark in Buenaventura and proceed via Cali, in the fertile Cauca valley, to Bogotá by rail and automobile, a two and a half day trip.

Bogotá, "the Athens of America", lies on a vast Andine sabana, at an altitude of 8,560 feet, guarded by the twin peaks of Guadalupe and Monserrate. The climate is cool, with two seasons of rain, heavy from March to May, and frequent from September to November. Excursions may be taken, however, to lower altitudes, where summer temperature reigns.

Caracas, the remaining South American capital, may be reached by road or by connecting airplane services. If the traveler chooses to go from Bogotá by highway, he must be prepared for sudden changes in altitude and therefore in temperature.



IN THE JESUIT CHURCH, QUITO

A burst of glory greets the visitor entering this church, for the carvings here shown are entirely covered with gold leaf, as are the many altars and the traceries on ceiling and pillars.

Cúcuta, near the Venezuelan border, is low and very hot; San Cristóbal, across the frontier, is higher but still warm; and in Venezuela the road crosses a 14,000 foot pass and descends to sea level before ending at Caracas, about 3,000 feet high. This city is warm, but usually not uncomfortably so, during the daytime, and delightfully cool at night. The months of the rainy season, June to October, are the least pleasant. Under the present government many advances are being made in social progress.

From Venezuela the traveler on the "Grand Tour" may go westward to Panama by boat or airplane. The two cosmopolitan cities at either end of the canal, Colón and Panama, are hot, and, except during the first four months of the year, the rainfall is heavy. The republic

has delightful mountain resorts, however, where the climate is spring-like. Game fishing off Panama is a great attraction to many visitors.

The mountainous Central American nations, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua lie wholly in the tropics, and the climate of their inland capitals varies with the altitude. Managua, Nicaragua, lies on the shores of Lake Managua only 140 feet above sea level, while Guatemala City is almost a mile high (4,880 feet). San José, Costa Rica, the next highest (3,816 feet) is surrounded by mountains, many of them pleasant excursion objectives; Tegucigalpa (3,200 feet) is comfortable during the rainy season, but even during the hottest weather the nights are usually cool; San Salvador (2,200 feet), only 23 miles from



Photograph by William B. Larsen

THE MAIN SQUARE, MEXICO CITY

This square, now busy with modern traffic, has seen the changing life of the Mexican capital for more than four centuries.



LAKE ATITLÁN, GUATEMALA

Around this beautiful highland lake are villages of Indians descended from the tribes populating the region when the Spaniards first came. The Indians still weave their bright garments by hand and preserve many other customs of their ancestors.

the coast, has usually a warm climate. Occasionally the city is visited by torrential tropical rains, which last from two or three days to two or three weeks, and are capable of doing great damage. In all these countries the dry season is from November or December through April.

Mexico City lies just within the tropics, but its altitude of 7,500 feet is one of the many things that make it a very pleasant place to visit. It is hot during the day-time in April, at the end of the dry season, but even during the rainy period the showers are generally short and occur at the same time of day. Coolness falls on the city at sundown and a coat is necessary. Visitors who bring sunhelmets furnish much amusement.

One of the most famous pre-Columbian sites in Mexico is Chichén Itzá, in Yuca-

tan. There, in a clearing in the jungle, lie imposing Maya remains, many of them restored; they give the visitor a good idea of the high civilization attained by the Mayas. It is hot in Yucatan throughout the year; the time to visit the site is from December to May, for during the rainy season much of the work is suspended, and few care to brave the discomfort attendant on the journey at that time of year.

The three Antillean republics—Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic—are well known as delightful places in which to escape the rigors of a northern winter. But islands have the added advantage of profiting by any winds that blow, and summer cruises have proved to thousands of Americans that even though these islands lie in the tropics, the heat is tempered by the trade winds. Each of the

capitals, Habana, Port-au-Prince, and Ciudad Trujillo, is also the chief port of its country, but not the only interesting spot. Beaches, inland towns, and highland resorts offer a variety of attractions that will make the traveler's last impressions of his trip as pleasant as his first.

So when a traveler packs his bags for the "Grand Tour", he should bear in mind both latitude and altitude, and take an assortment of both winter and summer clothing. A separate fur is particularly convenient for women who are going to one of the highland capitals, where the sun is warm outdoors and the interior of buildings cool. In addition to this material luggage, equipment by reading and study to appreciate what one is to see is particularly desirable, for "he who would bring home the wealth of the Indies must take the wealth of the Indies with him."

Such intellectual luggage may be obtained from serious books, like *The Republics of South America* (Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1937); *Chile: Land and Society* (George McC. McBride, 1936); or *Mexico Marches* (J. H. Plenn, 1939); or from lighter but equally informative works like *Rio* (Hugh Gibson, 1937); *Introduction to Argentina* (Alexander W. Weddell, 1939); or *Four Keys to Guatemala* (Kelsey and Osborne, 1939 [the first book on Guatemala to be approved by the national Academy of Geography and History]). And if the traveler wishes to make his own choice from a longer list, he will find aid in the *Selected List of Books (in English) on Latin America* issued in January 1939 by the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union. This will be sent on request to the Library, and the Travel Division of the Union will gladly answer inquiries as to routes and other related topics.



Alberto Cabero Díaz, Ambassador of Chile in Washington

ALBERTO Cabero Díaz, who on May 25, 1939 presented to President Roosevelt his letters of credence as Ambassador of Chile to the United States, has been teacher, author, lawyer, president of the Senate, and cabinet member; he was Minister of National Defense when appointed to his present post. When received by the President he said in the course of his remarks:

It is my privilege to be the first Chief of Mission to the United States named by the Government of His Excellency Don Pedro Aguirre Cerda, representing what we Chileans hope to be the beginning of a new era which we flatter ourselves to believe inspired by the spirit of social justice and humanitarian purposes of the New Deal policies which are the foundation of Your Excellency's administration. . . .

Between Chile and the United States there are unusual bonds of friendship and esteem, cherished and fostered for more than a century. For my Government, I pledge a constant devotion to the strengthening and furthering of such already existing ties, and beg to express the fervent wish that additional fields of mutual interest may be found, wherein our peoples may work together in frank and loyal cooperation with fruitful results.

Chile is perhaps of all the countries of America the most distant geographically from the United States; but we feel ourselves very near to the heart of this great nation because of the similarity of our democratic organization, our advanced social legislation, the abundance of our raw materials, the unity of our people, and because we have been favored by such important investments of North American capital for the promotion of our mining and other industries.

The President replied in part as follows:

Your Excellency's statement of the faith of the the Government of Chile in the principles of democracy and of the firm intention, in consonance therewith, to seek a solution of the problems confronting your country is one worthy of Chile. Those problems, I know, have been most seriously aggravated by the devastation wrought by the earthquake of January 24. The American



people and Government have the greatest sympathy and admiration for the fortitude and courage displayed by the Chilean nation in the face of that catastrophe.

As you so correctly pointed out, Mr. Ambassador, our two countries have enjoyed a long tradition of friendship and mutually beneficial cooperation. You may be sure that it is the sincere intention of my Government to spare no effort to continue to develop that relationship. Both nations have much to gain from a whole-hearted support of the principles of mutual respect, equitable dealing and democratic cooperation. In that way, also, we shall forward that system of peaceful, just and constructive international relations to which the twenty-one American Republics are pledged.

To the fact that Señor Cabero was left fatherless at the age of eleven and began early to work is doubtless due his interest

and activity in connection with labor unions. Although he was born at Santiago in 1876, he spent his early youth in Constitución, a beautiful seaside town south of the capital. He went through high school in Santiago, however. Soon he became teacher in another secondary school there and later inspector and vice-principal of a vocational school. In the meantime he had been studying law at the University of Chile, from which he was graduated in 1903.

Having moved to Antofagasta, Señor Cabero practiced law there for several years, serving as counsel for several British firms. He then entered public life in Iquique, where he was State Attorney and acting Justice of the Court of Appeals. During these years in the mining regions, he helped the labor unions in their educational and social activities, and was the leader of the Radical Party in Antofagasta. His friends rewarded him by electing him to the Chamber of Deputies, of which he was a member from 1915 to 1918. After

some time out of politics he became Governor of the Province of Antofagasta, and in 1924 was elected senator from that district, which returned him to the same position in 1932. His colleagues elected him president of the senate for 1932-33.

In 1932, with Carlos Dávila and Nolasco Cárdenas, he became a member of the Government Junta on the understanding that it was to form the transition to a prompt reestablishment of constitutional government. After 16 days, when this proved not to be the case, Señor Cabero resigned. In 1937, during President Alessandri's last administration, he was Minister of Land and Colonization.

Chile y los Chilenos, published in 1936, is a discussion of the Ambassador's country and countrymen from an economic viewpoint, against a historical, political and social background from early days down to the present era.

The Ambassador occupies Chile's seat on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



United States—Paraguay

Financial Agreement

THROUGH an exchange of notes on June 13, 1939, between the President Elect of Paraguay, General José Felix Estigarribia, then his country's Minister to Washington¹, and the Secretary of State of the United States, the Hon. Cordell Hull, a financial agreement was effected by which the United States will extend credits not exceeding \$500,000 at any one time to assist the Government of Paraguay in expanding Paraguayan foreign commerce and economic relations with the United States through a policy of meeting promptly commercial obligations to United States nationals and concerns and reducing seasonal and unusual fluctuations in the exchange rate of the peso.

In addition credits in amounts yet to be determined will be granted for financing purchases and essential services in the United States for the extension and improvement of the transportation facilities of Paraguay and for the development of other projects designed to increase the productive capacity of the Paraguayan people.

The exchange of notes was supplemented by a letter to General Estigarribia from Mr. Warren Lee Pierson, President of the Export-Import Bank of Washington, which will undertake, either directly or through United States commercial banks, to provide the above-mentioned credits to the Banco de la República del Paraguay. The credits in the total amount of \$500,000 are to be utilized from time to time as required prior to June 30, 1941. To permit the Banco de la República del Paraguay to liquidate its obligations each availment shall be payable in equal quarterly install-

ments during a period not exceeding 36 months, and the rate of interest shall be 3.6 percent per annum. All obligations are to be liquidated on or before June 30, 1944.

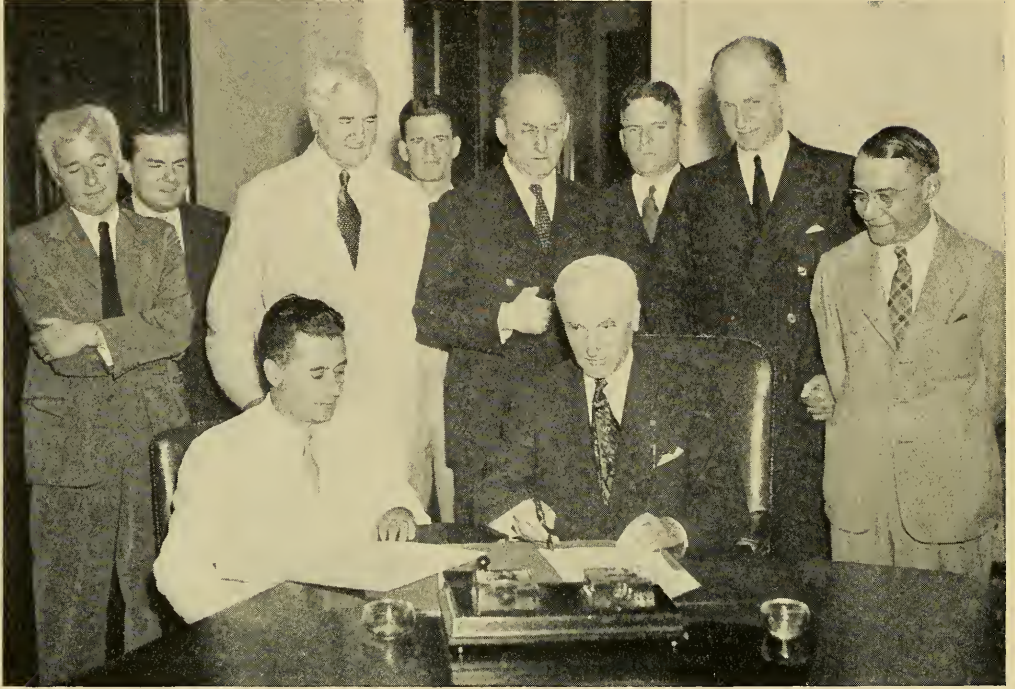
Individual expenditures under the construction program formulated by the Government of Paraguay shall follow examination of the feasibility and utility of particular projects and the certification as to their necessity by the Government of Paraguay and the Export-Import Bank. The credits for the financing in the United States of equipment, materials and essential services will take the form of discounting of serial notes, to be issued from time to time by the Government of Paraguay, bearing interest at the rate of 5 percent per annum and maturing over a period of seven years.

In his note to Secretary Hull General Estigarribia said:

. . . I truly regret that my stay in the United States must be relatively short. The extraordinary progress of this country in all matters is a perpetual source of education for all the other new countries of our continent and we all have a great deal to learn here. But above all, the cordial hospitality and the friendly understanding which His Excellency the President of the United States as well as Your Excellency have consistently shown me have been for me a cause of satisfaction which I can never forget. They reveal to me how sincere and effective is the determination of His Excellency President Roosevelt, in close collaboration with Your Excellency, to convert into reality the policy of true cooperation and good will between the American Republics which the Government of the United States so wisely pursues. I carry to my country the most ardent admiration for the notable talents as a statesman of His Excellency the President and for the high qualities of Your Excellency.

The peaceful and successful settlement of the boundary dispute between Paraguay and Bolivia,

¹ See biographical sketch in the *BULLETIN for July 1938*.



SIGNING THE FINANCIAL AGREEMENT BETWEEN PARAGUAY AND THE UNITED STATES

General Estigarribia and Secretary Hull are seated; standing, from left to right, are: Herbert Feis, Economic Adviser, Department of State; E. C. Collado, Division of American Republics, Department of State; Jesse Jones, then Chairman of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, now Administrator of the Federal Loan Agency; Laurence Duggan, Chief, Division of American Republics, Department of State; Henry Morgenthau, Jr., Secretary of the Treasury; Warren L. Pierson, President of the Export-Import Bank; Sumner Welles, Under Secretary of State; and Pablo Ynsfrán, then Counselor, now Chargé d'Affaires, of the Paraguayan Legation.

which was agreed upon by the two parties with the assistance of the six mediatory nations² at the Chaco Peace Conference leaves my country free to devote itself to the constructive task of developing its natural resources. Paraguay knows from bitter experience what sacrifices and what diversion of energies from economic and social progress are imposed by war. It turns from the sword to the ploughshare with deep satisfaction, and as a result of the freely-expressed choice of the Paraguayan people. I realize, as do my fellow citizens, the magnitude of the task which faces us, but we are determined to succeed and to obtain those benefits of modern civilization which will mean happiness and prosperity to the country. . . .

² *Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, the United States and Uruguay.*

General Estigarribia then expressed the appreciation of the Government of Paraguay for the cooperation which the United States is already extending to his country in studying and encouraging the expansion of production of non-competitive agricultural products and stated that any further help which the United States might give Paraguay in developing the nation's economy and expanding economic relations with the United States would further strengthen and perpetuate the cordial relations so happily existing between the two countries. In closing he added that it is the intention of the Govern-

ment of Paraguay to accord every appropriate protection and security to encourage the investment of capital and technical experience of United States citizens in the development of Paraguay's natural resources.

Secretary Hull's note said in part:

. . . I have received with pleasure your communication of June 13, 1939 with reference to the possibilities of increased economic cooperation between the United States and Paraguay which I have discussed with you from time to time during the period of your residence in Washington. You also inform me of your early departure for your own country due to the change in Government which is to take place in Paraguay on August 15.

Please accept once again my sincere congratulations on your election to the high office of President of Paraguay, and my assurances of the personal pleasure afforded me by our association during your mission in Washington. Your generous comment with respect to President Roosevelt and myself is very deeply appreciated. It has been for us a pleasure to have given you the full measure of our assistance and cooperation during your mission, and I wish to take this opportunity to assure you of their continuance during the period of your Presidency. I am happy to learn of your wholehearted approval of the policy of inter-American cooperation which in the light of sombre developments in other parts of the world takes on added importance.

I appreciate the problems confronting your country as a result of the Chaco war and in connection with the development of its resources and I am sure that our two Governments can cooperate with mutual advantage in solving these problems. The United States is very pleased to have had a part in bringing to a successful conclusion the negotiations at Buenos Aires which culminated in the Treaty of July 21, 1938, between Paraguay and Bolivia,³ thus bringing to an end a long and costly dispute in a manner which presents to the world a striking proof of the fact that international disputes can be settled by peaceful means.

After speaking of the assistance which the United States was willing to lend Paraguay, Secretary Hull said in conclusion: "It is the sincere hope of my Government that the arrangements outlined in the fore-

³See BULLETIN for August, September, and November 1938.

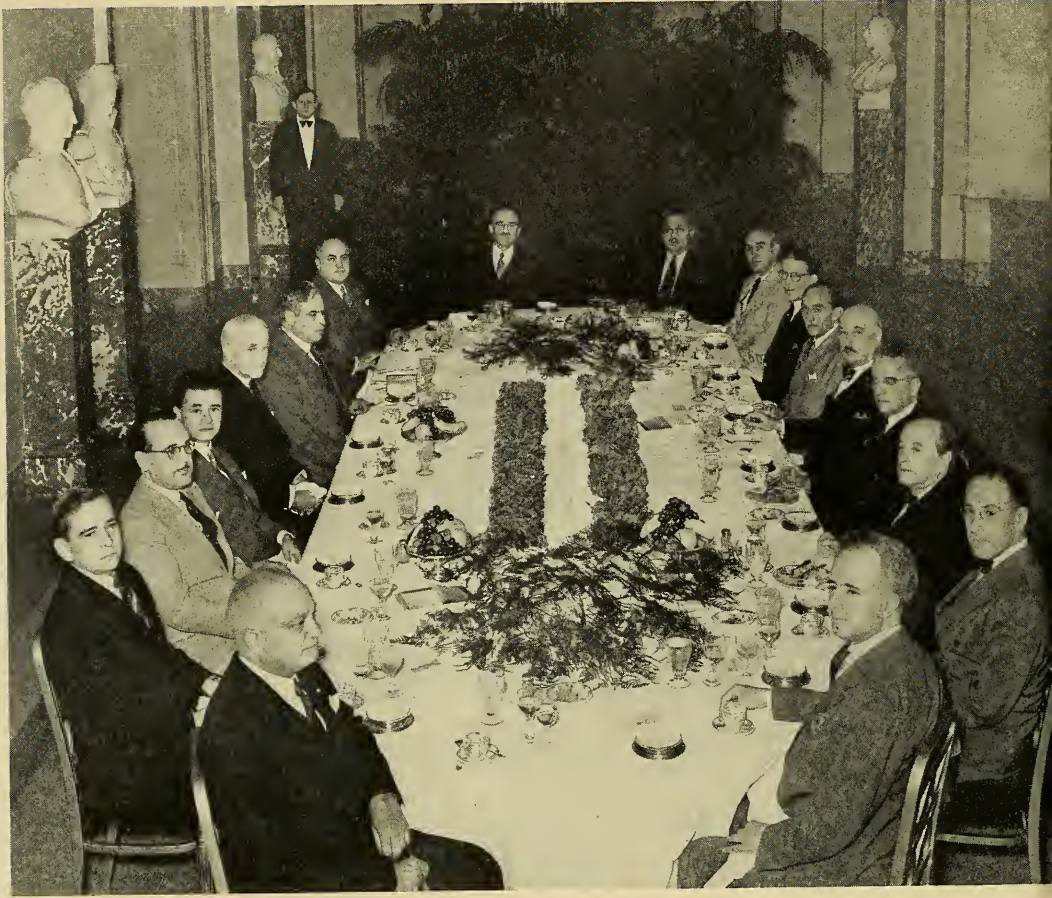
going paragraphs will be carried through successfully, that they will result in genuine advantages to both countries, and that they will furnish another example of the mutually profitable cooperation possible among the American republics."

Before his departure from Washington General Estigarribia was the object of many attentions. On the day the financial agreement was signed he was entertained by President Roosevelt at a farewell luncheon at the White House. On May 5 he was the guest of honor at a luncheon given by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, of which General Estigarribia had been a member while serving his country as Minister to Washington prior to his election to the Presidency of the Republic. On this occasion the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States and Chairman of the Board, addressed General Estigarribia as follows:

We have assembled today with a two-fold purpose in view: first, to extend to you, Mr. Minister, our sincere felicitations on the high honor conferred upon you by your fellow countrymen in electing you to the highest office within their gift, and secondly, to express our regret that we are soon to lose the benefit of your counsel at the sessions of the Governing Board. During the period of your incumbency as Minister of Paraguay at Washington you have given to the work of the Pan American Union constant and enthusiastic cooperation and we are all deeply grateful for the outstanding service that you have rendered.

You are soon to take over the manifold cares and responsibilities of Chief Magistrate of your country. In the administration of that high office we know that we may count on your continued interest and cooperation in the work of the Union.

I feel certain that I am giving expression to the sentiments of all your colleagues of the Governing Board when I extend to you our heartfelt wishes for the fullest measure of success in the fulfillment of the important duties which you are soon to undertake. We combine therewith the hope that during the period of your administration the Republic of Paraguay will enjoy an ever increasing measure of well-being and prosperity.



FAREWELL LUNCHEON GIVEN BY THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION IN HONOR OF GENERAL ESTIGARRIBIA

In acknowledging the tribute paid him by the Chairman and members of the Board, General Estigarribia said:

Permit me to express my sincere thanks for the kind words that our Chairman has just addressed to me in his own name and in that of my colleagues of the Governing Board, in stating the two main purposes of this gathering. Please accept my appreciation of your cordial congratulations; I assure you that I too feel deeply my coming separation from your midst. While I have been serving as Minister of my country in Washington, it has been a source of satisfaction to me to have constant evidence of the spirit of cooperation prevailing among us all, as representatives of the American Republics, a spirit that finds concrete

expression in this institution, which offers and will continue to offer so many services to the continental cause.

I believe I have truly identified myself with this institution, and my departure from Washington will not mean that my efforts to further Pan American ideals will in any way be abated. I shall take with me to my country, as valuable encouragement, the good wishes just expressed for the success of the duties that I have been summoned to assume. I beg you to remember that in Paraguay I shall still be your good friend and indefatigable co-worker. I thank you, gentlemen, for your good wishes for the welfare and prosperity of my country, and request you to accept mine for the prosperity of all the American Republics.

First Inter-American Tourist Congress

Its Practical Results

JOSÉ TERCERO¹

Chief, Travel Division, Pan American Union

THE First Inter-American Travel Congress was held in San Francisco from April 14 to 21, 1939. More than two hundred delegates, representing governmental bureaus and private tourist organizations of the twenty-one American Republics and Canada, met to discuss the various problems in their field requiring immediate attention and to recommend practical plans for promoting and developing inter-American tourist travel consistently, orderly, and uninterruptedly. A spirit of cordial cooperation and the willingness to listen to diverse opinions, frequently representing conflicting interests, were the dominant notes in the discussions of the Congress, which elected as its President Mr. D. Leo Dolan, Director of the Canadian Travel Bureau.

As readers of the BULLETIN will recall, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union authorized the Union in December 1937 to cooperate with the directors of the San Francisco Fair in organizing and holding the Travel Congress. The program discussed at San Francisco was evolved after cooperative effort on the part of all the American countries over a period of nearly fourteen months. Before examining in detail the conclusions of the Congress, it should be noted that the delegates, prior to voting on any detailed resolutions, acted to assure the permanence and continuity of their work. They therefore agreed that similar congresses should be held at two-year intervals, accepting the

invitation of the Mexican Government to meet in Mexico City in 1941, and requested the Pan American Union to perform through its Travel Division the activities of a permanent secretariat of the congresses.

The attentions showered on the members of the congress not only by its hosts, the officials of the Fair, but also by federal and local authorities and a large number of civic bodies and of private individuals were proof of the sincere welcome given to this inter-American gathering.

To reprint all the conclusions of the congress would take too much space here, and furthermore would not convey to the reader the principles on which the results of the congress will be based. The chief purpose of these paragraphs is therefore to note briefly the factors that together give significance to the recommendations of the congress and that will exert a continuous influence on their fulfillment. In brief, these factors are the following:

1. Recognition of the economic, social, cultural and political importance of tourist travel in its local, national and international aspects, and the consequent necessity for promoting travel with the same diligence with which production, distribution and consumption are promoted in industry, commerce and agriculture.

2. Recognition by officials on the one hand and by private entities on the other of their respective responsibilities in the promotion of tourist travel.

3. Reaffirmation of the solidarity of the

¹ See page 478.

American nations and recognition of the prime importance of travel in inter-American relations, and the consequent necessity that not only governments but private agencies in all the American countries should undertake concerted action for the promotion of inter-American travel.

Let us see now how the conclusions of the San Francisco congress express the adherence of the delegates to these fundamental principles. In the international field the congress recommended the immediate simplification of requirements for the entry of travelers to a country, suggesting the adoption of a tourist card as sole document until the Pan American passport convention is perfected. To simplify procedure it was suggested that the governments negotiate bilateral agreements, which can be concluded and put into effect between any two parties with little delay. Such agreements would not only do away with one of the greatest obstacles to tourist travel in the Americas—the complicated and excessive requirements for entering certain countries—but they might also include provisions taking action on various other important recommendations of the congress, such as customs exemption for publicity material, reciprocal arrangements for the entrance of tourists' automobiles, and measures to facilitate international tourist travel by railway and autobus.

It was recommended that North American, Central American and Antillean Travel Federations be organized on the model of the present South American Federation, with the purpose of finally uniting them all in an inter-American federation. Similarly, other resolutions recommended the formation of an inter-American hotel association and an inter-American association of tourist travel agencies.

In the field of national action in which

both governments and individuals share, the congress urged the establishment of national tourist boards and made specific suggestions as to their financing, duties, and field of action. The improvement of communications and hotels, the regulation and control of all services offered to tourists, and the extension of publicity campaigns are other practical recommendations whose fulfillment is urgently required for the proper development of the travel industry.

Of great importance from every point of view are the various recommendations of the congress concerning the cultural aspects of travel, for they recognize it as one of the most important means for cultural and intellectual approximation. The congress recommended the preservation of folk customs, arts, and industries; the compilation of a detailed calendar of folk festivals; the celebration of folk festivals in the city in which each inter-American travel congress is held; the restoration and protection of archeological, colonial, historical and natural monuments; and the establishment of national parks. The promotion of sports and athletics and the periodical celebration of inter-American meets were also advocated.

The governments and private travel interests of the American nations now have before them a program for concrete action drawn up at San Francisco by their own representatives. The responsibility for putting this program into effect is entirely in their hands. Sometimes the steps to be taken need joint action on the part of two or more countries. In others the adoption of measures by each country is sufficient to achieve the objectives sanctioned by the congress.

It devolves upon the permanent secretariat, that is, the Travel Division of the Pan American Union, to serve as the coordinating agency for all the activities of a

cooperative nature and to lend its aid and facilities to the realization of the projects envisioned in the recommendations and resolutions. Among other duties entrusted to the Travel Division in this capacity are an investigation of present maritime services with a view to obtaining, if possible, a reduction in rates, as well as improvement and expansion of operations; the compilation of all inter-American agreements facilitating travel and of the calendar

of folk festivals; cooperation in the establishment of the aforementioned federations and associations; the preparation of publicity campaigns; and the distribution of publicity material.

The foregoing program is undoubtedly ambitious but it is essentially practical and perfectly feasible. It is confidently expected that when the second congress meets in 1941 much progress towards its execution will be reported.

Machado de Assis

Brazilian Novelist

RAUL D'EÇA, PH. D.

Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union

JUNE 21, 1939 was the centenary of the birth of the Brazilian novelist Joaquim Maria Machado de Assis. Although he is little known outside his native land and, even in Brazil, his importance has been discounted in some circles, Machado de Assis is nevertheless considered by responsible critics one of the greatest prose writers of all times in the Portuguese language, and the foremost among Brazilian novelists, past or present.

Besides being a novelist, he was also a poet, literary critic, short-story writer, and dramatist. His first published poems appeared in various newspapers in Rio de Janeiro about 1856. But what he wrote before 1869 is of little merit, and he himself tried later to suppress his early work. It was only when he was in his forties—that is, after 1879—that he revealed his talents.

As a poet, he was correct, but somewhat cold. He was influenced by the Romantic movement, although some of his last

poetry is Parnassian in style. He distinguished himself neither as a dramatist nor as a literary critic. The few comedies he wrote in his youth are stilted; and his critical essays were inspired rather by personal sentiment than by any desire to evaluate the work of others justly and impartially. He was by temperament shy and cautious; he avoided discussions and disputes; he respected the social conventions of his time. These qualities prevented him from developing as a literary critic who inspired respect.

For many years a bureau chief in one of the government departments in Rio de Janeiro, Machado de Assis was a model public servant, keeping strict office hours, attending to his duties with meticulous care, and never becoming involved in politics. Although he had some negro blood, he never expressed himself openly on slavery, a problem in which his generation was passionately interested and which

agitated all Brazil until 1888, when the imperial parliament abolished that institution by law. Nor did he take the slightest part, pro or con, in the great public debate that preceded the proclamation of the republic in 1889.

Thus Machado de Assis was a spectator of the drama of life, without passion or enthusiasm, occupying his seat modestly, taking care not to step on the toes of his neighbor, and finding his pleasure in writing carefully-wrought pages on human folly. To his work as a novelist he devoted the best of his talent, laboring steadily and quietly in his spare time and guarding the work in progress from the curious eyes of others, even his most intimate friends.

His great novels include: *Memorias Posthumas de Braz Cubas* (1881), *Quincas Borba* (1891), *Dom Casmurro* (1899), *Esaú e Jacob* (1904), and *Memorial de Ayres* (1908). In these he describes the life of the Brazilian capital in a sober prose, most correct as to style and full of a special humor, mingled with disillusionment, philosophic scepticism, and a certain studied attitude not uncommon among great writers.

Machado de Assis has been accused of lack of nationalism. His novels, it has been said, are full of characters who might have lived in any country of the western world; there is nothing to indicate that they are Brazilians and live in Brazil. Some of his more acute critics have recognized that this stricture is unjust; for, as a matter of fact, everything in the work of Machado de Assis is thoroughly Brazilian, typical of the capital of the empire, of the "court", as Rio de Janeiro used to be called. The period of his novels is, naturally, the last years of the reign of Dom Pedro II, the wise, just, and temperate ruler who lost his crown because he was more republican than was convenient for his personal interests and those of his dynasty. The critics who

attack Machado de Assis generally belong to the French realistic or to the contemporary nationalistic school; they write with pens dipped in the crimson ink of the violent nationalism that has dominated the greater part of the world since the Great War, or follow the literary fashions in which details (often microscopic) of the scene seem to blind the writer. This literary tendency has lately led many young writers in Brazil to write regional literature so extreme that even Brazilians, if they live in other parts of the country, need a glossary to be able to understand it.

Machado de Assis never followed classical models in giving undue attention to details of local color or scene. The landscape is of secondary interest to him; he suggests it briefly. He concentrated his whole attention on the emotional life of his characters, to whom he seemed to apply a sort of X-ray that permits the reader to observe the contrast between their inner and subconscious lives and their outer or conscious existence. And it is in this contrast that the humor of Machado de Assis consists, a humor that is not at all Rabelaisian, since it does not make the reader burst into hearty laughter, but causes him to smile with a certain sadness at the hypocrisy and egoism of human beings.

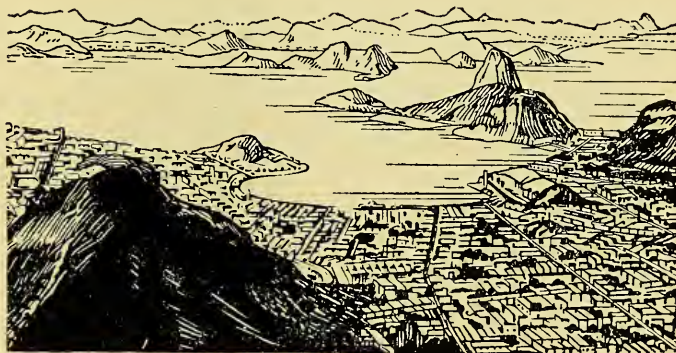
This pessimism of Machado de Assis had various causes, some personal, others cultural in origin. His disillusionment with life was, in the first place, due to a consciousness of his mixed blood, extreme poverty and humble origin, and to epilepsy, the illness that made his life one long martyrdom. The cultural factor was the pessimistic reaction that succeeded the excess romanticism of the first half of the 19th century. Machado de Assis drew inspiration, up to a certain point, from the English humorists, whose works he read

in the original, for he had taught himself English in his youth.

Memorias Posthumas de Braz Cubas is generally considered the best of Machado de Assis' books,¹ the one in which his genius attained the highest degree of literary perfection, if it can be said that there are different degrees of perfection. Critics have held divergent opinions as to whether this volume should be considered a novel or not; the question is still unsettled. Machado de Assis himself said that he had adopted the loose form of Sterne

¹ *Opinions on this subject are also divergent. Isaac Goldberg says in his "Brazilian Literature" (Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1922): "So much for the weariness of the superhuman,—an attitude matched among us more common mortals by such a delirium as occurs in a famous passage of Machado de Assis' Braz Cubas, one of the mature works of which Dom Casmurro is by many held to be the best. What shall we say of the plots of these novels? In reality, the plots do not exist. They are the slenderest of strings upon which the master stylist hangs the pearls of his wisdom. And such a wisdom! Not the maxims of a Solomon, nor the pompous nothings of the professional moralist. Seeming by-products of the narrative, they form its essence. To read Machado de Assis' central novels for their tale is the vainest of pursuits."*—EDITOR.

and Xavier de Maistre. The supposed author, Braz Cubas, begins by describing his death and its attendant circumstances, and then tells of his childhood, youth and maturity. The chief part of the book is devoted to Braz Cubas' love affair with Virgilia, one of the most notable feminine characters created by Machado de Assis. But there are other characters, such as Dona Placida, Quincas Borba, and Lobos Neves, who are no less interesting. Episodes and persons throughout the book mirror with marvelous fidelity life in the Brazilian capital at the end of last century. It is hard to find in any other literature, even the richest, a book in which love of life and disillusionment with human beings are so intermingled. This work of Machado de Assis, and *Os Sertões*, by Euclides da Cunha, are undeniably the finest works of Brazilian literature ever written, and should be better known in all countries of America conscious of the unity of continental culture.



José Tercero

In Memoriam

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION mourns the death of José Tercero, Chief of the Travel Division, who was the victim of a chest cramp while swimming on July 8, 1939. Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Union, expressed the general sentiments of the staff when he said, "His untimely death means a very great loss to the Pan American Union and leaves a void which will be very difficult to fill. His personality endeared him to every one who had the privilege of knowing him." Condolences from many official sources were received by the Union, for Mr. Tercero's activities had taken him to most of the American countries.

Mr. Tercero was born on March 4, 1904, in Mexico City, and was educated there. He supplemented his schooling with private lessons in English and French and special courses in economics and sociology.

His connection with the Pan American Union began in 1927, when he became a member of the editorial staff. The Division of Translations was organized shortly thereafter, and he was put in charge of the new unit. When, in compliance with a resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States held at Montevideo in 1933, the Travel Division was created at the Union the following year, Mr. Tercero was responsible for organizing it, and directed it until his death. Under his dynamic and intelligent leadership, it constantly grew in scope and effectiveness.

As chief of this division, Mr. Tercero was the official representative of the Union at the opening ceremonies of the



Laredo-Mexico City section of the Pan American Highway on July 1, 1936. He put a tremendous amount of work into the organization of the First Inter-American Travel Congress, which met in San Francisco April 14-21, 1939, and attended the congress as delegate of the Pan American Union. In his capacity as chief rapporteur, he took a prominent part in its deliberations, and his efforts were acknowledged by the congress in a resolution expressive of hearty appreciation.

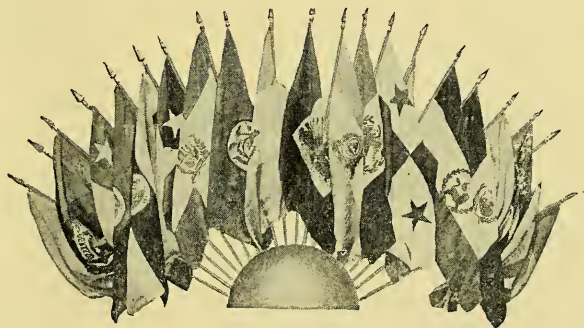
Mr. Tercero was extremely gifted as a translator and interpreter. That his talents were widely appreciated is shown by the fact that he was appointed interpreter for eight official international congresses meeting in different parts of the continent:

The Consular Procedure Conference, Washington, 1928; the Pan American Highway Congress, Rio de Janeiro, 1929; the Customs Procedure and Port Formalities Congress, Washington, 1929; the Sixth International Road Congress, Washington, 1930; the Inter-American Conference on Agriculture, Forestry, and Animal Industry, Washington, 1930; the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference, Washington, 1931; the Seventh International Conference of American States, Montevideo, 1933; and the Second General Assembly, Pan American Institute of Geography and History, Washington, 1935. He attended six meetings of Rotary

International as interpreter, and was official translator for the General Claims Commission between the United States and Mexico in 1931.

He taught at one time in the School of Foreign Service of Georgetown University, Washington, and wrote many articles on a variety of subjects, which appeared in magazines, newspapers, and travel publications of the United States and Latin America.

Mr. Tercero is survived by his widow and three children, Patricia, Kenneth, and Margarita, and a large number of friends in diplomatic, official, and private circles.





Courtesy of Regina Arrieta

COLEGIO GABRIELA MISTRAL BARRANQUILLA, COLOMBIA

The Panamanian dance "La Pollera" was part of this school's festivities.

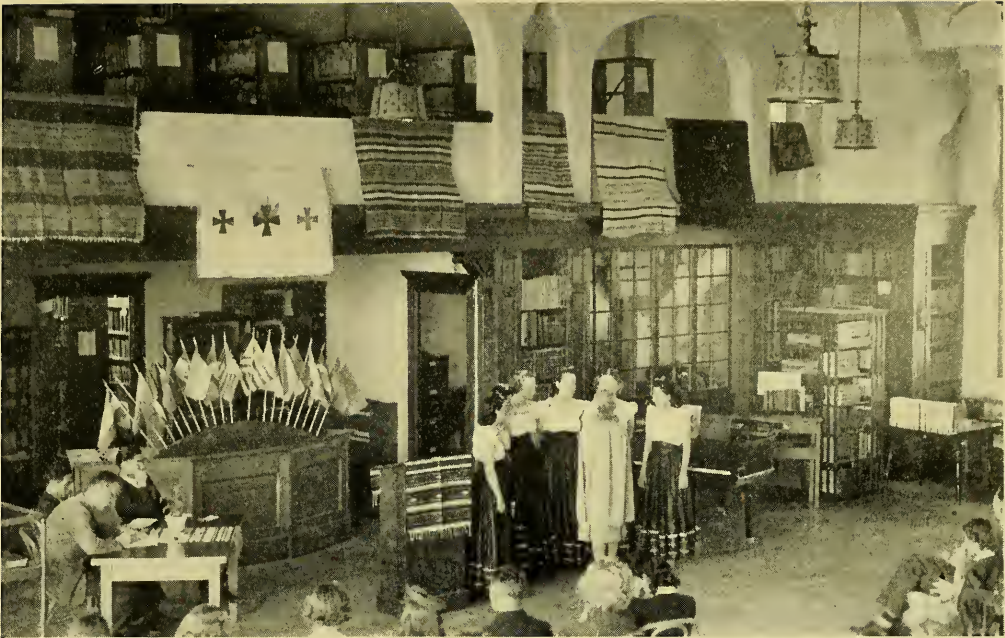
Pan American Day, 1939

"EVERYTHING unites us, nothing separates us," might well describe the prevailing sentiment of the continent-wide celebration of Pan American Day in 1939. As one Latin American speaker remarked on that occasion, "Everything that has so often been said through the years about our solidarity has now come to pass through understanding of our common interests. As with one voice the nations composing our great brotherhood utter a single thought. We are united as we were a century ago; America is not only a geographical but also a political and social reality."

The Pan American Union has been happy to receive letters describing the successful celebration of Pan American Day again this year, and takes this oppor-

tunity to thank most cordially all those who have cooperated in making the day an occasion for drawing closer together throughout the Americas.

Official entities, schools and universities, chambers of commerce, civic associations, Rotary Clubs and similar organizations, broadcasting stations, the press, and the public in general joined in paying tribute to the ideal of American unity. A perusal of the hundreds of programs received at the Pan American Union—which unfortunately cannot be published for lack of space—shows clearly that the celebration of this day has become firmly established as an annual event. Not only capitals and other considerable cities but also small villages named on only the largest maps united in festivals of friendship. There



TWO SCHOOLS CELEBRATE PAN
AMERICAN DAY

Upper: The students at Adams State
Teachers College, Colorado, holding
a Pan American Conference. Lower:
The flags of the 21 American republics
flying at La Progresiva School,
Cárdenas, Cuba.



Courtesy of Sister Mary St. Patrick

A GROUP FROM "PAN AMERICA CELEBRATES THE SESQUICENTENNIAL," OUR
LADY OF VICTORY COLLEGE, FORT WORTH, TEXAS



Courtesy of John D. Fitz-Gerald

UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

Pan American Day (April 14) and Cervantes Day (April 23) were celebrated jointly.



THE GOVERNOR AND OFFICIALS OF THE PROVINCE OF ORIENTE, CUBA, ENTER-
TAINED THE CONSULAR CORPS IN SANTIAGO ON APRIL 14

was general agreement that "America is the hope and promise for all who thirst after peace, and reject the idea that a universal conflagration, which will destroy the edifice painfully built by man through the centuries, is inevitable."

Official observance was wide in its scope. The special meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, addressed by President Roosevelt, was described in the June issue of the *BULLETIN*. Many of the national and state legislatures in session on April 14 included recognition of the day in their programs. Cities, too, especially those situated near another country and so perhaps more internationally minded, were particularly active in celebrating the day; in the United States, for example, the local unit of the Federal Theater in Miami featured a play

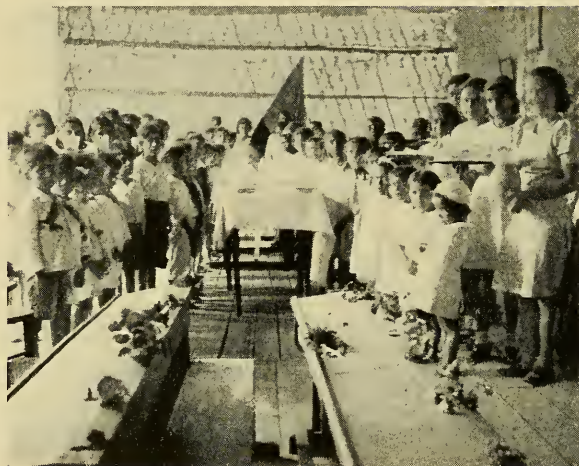
written about incidents in the life of Simón Bolívar.

Women's organizations were especially active in recognizing the importance of Pan American Day for, as one of their speakers said, "Women are coworkers with men, and therefore should be their special allies in this period of world chaos, when the Old World is a welter of hatred and conflicting ideals. . . . And if we want to work for the good of the world, let us make the cause of peace our own, let us work for it with ardent consecration, and thus keep the American continent free from the threat of war. Let us support the ideal that crystallized at the Lima Conference, and let us help make the soul of our Free America strong and peace-loving."

There was striking unanimity in the



Courtesy of Francisco Espinosa



Courtesy of Francisco J. Sandoval

TWO LATIN AMERICAN SCHOOL GROUPS

UPPER: Students of the Liceo Cuzcatlán, San Salvador. LOWER: The school lunch room at Caloto, Colombia.

desire for true cooperation expressed at the special ceremonies held in the many schools in various countries bearing the name of a sister American republic or of a hero of some other nation. A diplomatic or consular representative of the country so honored was, in nearly every case, the guest of honor. The exercises took varied forms: pageants, songs, dances, plays, tableaux, recitations, and addresses.

The press throughout the continent did its share in emphasizing the occasion. From a typical editorial published on that day the following extracts are taken:

"Today the continent is celebrating Pan American Day We cannot fail to realize that the future of free nations is being threatened, that might once more has asserted itself against right, that the forces of reaction are blocking the road of democracy America has an unavoidable mission to fulfill, and to do so it needs a vigorous unity, a unity without limit or reserve. On a basis of mutual respect for law, of the juridical equality of all its nations, the Continent must seek the close cooperation of all its forces, strengthen its spiritual and material ties,

and understand that for the fulfilment of its historic destiny it should neither spare its efforts nor limit its endeavors.

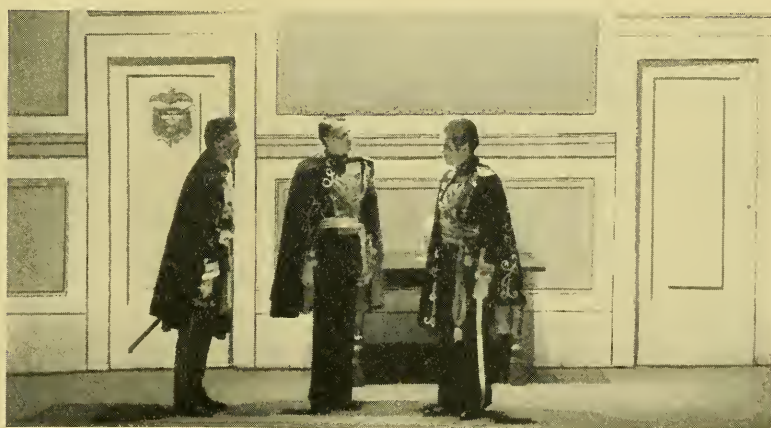
"At a period when the foundations of western civilization are in grave danger, America should be a beacon of hope in the world. Its day is approaching, and the nations that compose this continent and draw from it the vigor of their spirit should be united in determination, should augment each other to attain their common and boundless greatness.

"This is our heartfelt hope on this day of American brotherhood."

On April 14, 1940, the Pan American Union will have completed its first half-century. The Eighth International Conference of American States, assembled in Lima last December, approved a resolution in which, after thanking the Union for

its contributions to the development of closer relations and better understanding between the republics of the American continent, it recommended that the fiftieth anniversary be celebrated with appropriate ceremonies in all member countries, by both official bodies and organizations and institutions concerned with closer economic, cultural, scientific, and social relations.

The Union hopes that that memorable date will begin another fifty years of continued cooperation and support on the part of governments and private organizations alike, and that with their aid it may continue to increase the scope of its activities and carry on, with the same enthusiasm as in the past, its task of bringing closer together the nations in the Western Hemisphere.



Courtesy of Barbara Ring

A SCENE FROM "WHOM DREAMS POSSESS" BY DR. BARBARA RING

This play, dealing with the life of Bolívar, was presented by the Miami Federal Theater.

Pan American Union NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

AT THE regular monthly meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, held June 14, 1939, the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State and Chairman of the Board, cordially welcomed a new member, the Ambassador of Chile, Señor don Alberto Cabero.

Division of Social and Labor Information

The Board adopted a proposal of the Government of Mexico, presented by Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, Ambassador of Mexico to the United States, for the appointment of a committee of three members to consider the establishment of a Division of Social and Labor Information at the Pan American Union.

Inter-American Commission of Women

On March 1, 1939, the Governing Board requested the Governments of the American Republics to transmit to the Pan American Union on or before May 31, 1939, the names of their representatives on the Inter-American Commission of Women. After that date the Governing Board was to proceed with the designation of the Chairman of the Commission from among the members whose names had been received. To date, sixteen Governments have designated their representatives to serve on the Commission, as follows:

ARGENTINA: Señora Ana Rosa de Martínez Guerrero

BRAZIL: Senhora Rosalina Coelho Lisboa de Miller

CHILE: Señora Marta Vergara de Chamudes

COLOMBIA: Señora María Currea de Aya

CUBA: Señora Elena Mederos de González

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC: Señorita Minerva Bernardino

ECUADOR: Señora Blanca Puig de Alfaro

EL SALVADOR: Señora Elena de Castro

GUATEMALA: Señorita Ana R. de Espinoza

HONDURAS: Señora Mariana de Cáceres

PANAMA: Señora Esther Neira de Calvo

PARAGUAY: Señora Carmen G. de Ynsfrán

PERU: Señorita Belén de Osma

UNITED STATES: Miss Mary Winslow

URUGUAY: Doctora Sofía Álvarez de Demicheli

VENEZUELA: Señorita Luisa Martínez

At its June meeting the Board decided that additional time should be given those Governments that have not yet appointed their representatives on the Commission and fixed October 31, 1939, as the date before which the names of the representatives should be communicated to the Pan American Union. The Chairman of the Commission will be designated by the Board from among the members whose names have been received by that time.

Codification of International Law

Since only sixteen of the twenty-one Governments, members of the Pan American Union, had transmitted, as of May 1, their preliminary lists of candidates for the election of the two new members of the Committee of Experts for the Codification of International Law, raising the membership of that body to nine, the Governing Board recommended that the period for the transmission to the Pan American Union by the American Republics of their

lists of candidates be extended to July 1, and that the Union should then compile a general list of all candidates and transmit it to the Governments. The votes cast by the latter will be counted at the November meeting of the Governing Board.

Immigration

In order to carry into effect three resolutions on immigration adopted by the Eighth International Conference of American States, which met at Lima, Peru, last December, the Governing Board approved a committee report requesting the Governments to prepare studies on their respective ability to receive immigration and asking that they transmit the studies to the Union by January 1, 1940, together with the names of their representatives to serve on a Committee of Experts on Immigration. With reference to the draft treaty on immigration submitted to the Lima Conference by the Brazilian Delegation, the Board requested the Director General to transmit this draft to the Governments for observation and comment, the replies to be transmitted to the Union by January 1, 1940. The draft treaty and the observations thereon are then to be submitted to the Committee of Experts on Immigration, with a view to their coordination and the preparation of a uniform and definitive draft.

Complying with the resolution which requests the Pan American Union to keep a classified register of the immigration possibilities of each country with respect to the profession, activity and condition of the immigrants which it can receive, the Board authorized the Director General to establish such a register in the appropriate division of the Pan American Union. The information for this register is to be provided by each country and is to be communicated to the remainder with annual revisions.

Informal Meetings of Treasury Representatives

A report approved by the Board recommended that the Government of Guatemala be requested to formulate the program of the informal meeting of Treasury representatives which is to take place in Guatemala City on November 13, 1939. It also recommended that the suggestions received by the Pan American Union from various Governments relative to topics to be included on the agenda be transmitted to the Government of Guatemala, in order that it may select the topics which in its opinion may be considered at this first meeting, within the spirit of the resolution on this subject approved by the Eighth International Conference of American States.

Inter-American Penal Congress

With reference to the resolution of the Lima Conference which contemplates a preliminary study and consultation with the Governments and with qualified organizations and individuals relative to the advisability of convening an Inter-American Penal Congress, the Governing Board approved a report which requests an expression of opinion and suggestions from the various Governments and authorizes the Director General to consult with qualified organizations and individuals. Since the International Prison Congress is scheduled to meet in 1940, the report suggests that it would be advisable to defer the Inter-American Congress at least until 1941.

Competition for a Hymn of Peace

The Governing Board also approved the report of its committee appointed to consider the recommendation of the Lima

Conference to the effect that "through the Pan American Union a competition be held to select a Hymn of Peace, with suitable words in the respective languages, to be sung in all the schools of America at appropriate ceremonies."

The report contains the following recommendations:

1. That the Governments of the countries, members of the Pan American Union, organize, or arrange that there be organized within their respective countries, national competitions for the selection of a Hymn of Peace with suitable words, in accordance with the resolution of the Eighth International Conference of American States. The conditions of the competition and the award to the prize-winning composition shall be determined by the respective Governments, or by the organization or entity entrusted with the conduct of the competition by each Government.

2. That the competition in each country be concluded and the prize-winning composition selected not later than February 1, 1940. It is recommended that immediately thereafter the composition receiving the award in the national competition be sent to the Director General of the Pan American Union, in order that it may be entered in the second or inter-American stage of the competition. It is further suggested that the compositions selected in the national competitions be not released for publication until after the inter-American competition has been concluded.

3. That upon receipt of the compositions receiving the awards in the national competitions, and not later than March 1, 1940, they be submitted to a jury for the purposes of determining which composition shall receive the inter-American award. In due time the undersigned Committee will submit to the Governing Board suggestions relative to the conditions to govern the second stage of the competition, including the time and place of meeting of the jury of award, the selection of the jury, and the award that shall be made to

the prize-winning composition. It is recommended that if by April 1, 1940, the results of the national competitions in at least eleven countries should not be known, the competition should be declared terminated and plans for the second stage of the competition abandoned. In this event, the compositions received will be returned to the respective countries.

Resolution of Condolence

The Chairman asked the Board to join him in paying tribute to a former member of the Board who had recently passed away, Dr. José Manuel Puig Casauranc, at one time Ambassador of Mexico in Washington, whose death, Mr. Hull said, "in view of his exceptional qualities of mind, character and industry and of his deep interest in the public good, was a great loss to his own country and to America as a whole." The following resolution was approved unanimously:

WHEREAS, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union has learned of the death of His Excellency, Señor Dr. José Manuel Puig Casauranc, former Ambassador of Mexico to the United States and representative of Mexico on the Governing Board; and

WHEREAS, during his service as a member of the Board Dr. Puig Casauranc showed constant interest in and made important contributions to the work of the Union.

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

1. To place on the minutes of this meeting its profound regret at the death of His Excellency, Señor Dr. José Manuel Puig Casauranc.

2. To request the Director General to transmit this resolution to the Government of Mexico and to the family of the deceased.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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RUINS OF SAN GERÓNIMO, DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

SEPTEMBER ' ' ' 1939

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima, Peru, in 1938. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant

Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, intellectual and agricultural cooperation, juridical matters, and travel, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 100,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



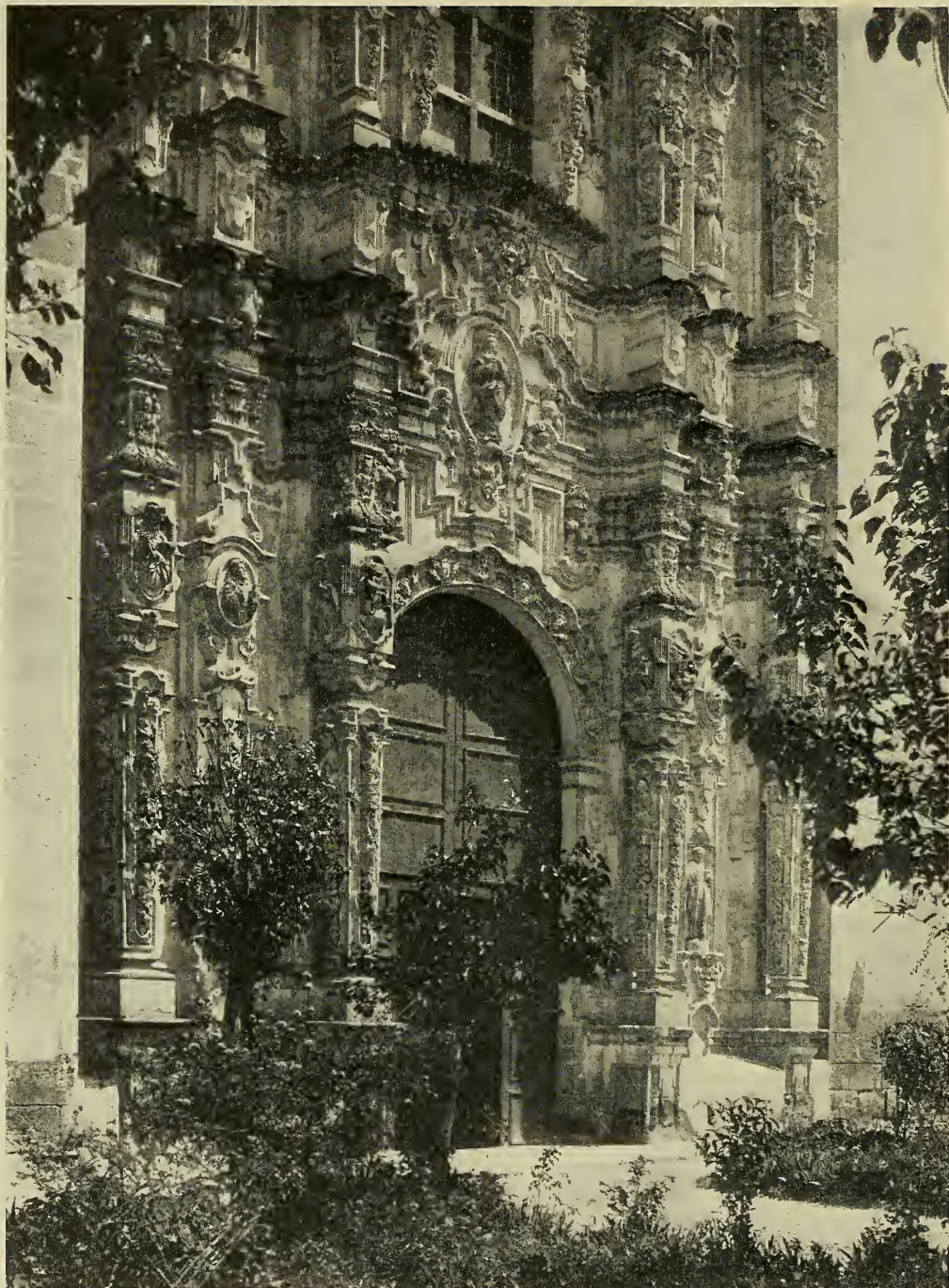
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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON.





FRANCISCAN CHURCH, SAN MIGUEL ALLENDE, MEXICO
Spanish colonial architecture has had a wide influence in the United States.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIII, No. 9



SEPTEMBER 1939

The Profits of Cultural Interchange

CHARLES A. THOMSON

Assistant Chief, Division of Cultural Relations, State Department; formerly Specialist in Latin America, Foreign Policy Association

AMONG THE "New Problems of Government" that claim our attention at this year's session of the Institute of Public Affairs may well be included the question of our cultural and intellectual relations with other nations, particularly those with our fellow-republics of this hemisphere. That such relations are of importance to our government was evidenced by the establishment a little less than a year ago of the Division of Cultural Relations in the Department of State. While creation of the Division indicates recognition by Government that it has a contribution to make in this field, the function of the new Division will not be to supplant in any degree the significant activities toward international understanding now carried on by colleges, universities, foundations, institutes and other private agencies, but rather to render those activities more effective

by the provision of an official agency serving as a clearing house for exchange of information and as a center of coordination and cooperation.

In much of our thinking within this country concerning cultural exchange, emphasis is placed on what we can contribute to the other American republics. Generosity seemingly prevails over self-interest. It is complacently and perhaps all too easily assumed that the United States is equipped to pour out knowledge and enlightenment on the peoples of the south. There is much talk of the contributions which may be made to the other American republics by our teachers, writers, and technical experts, but little consideration of what gifts of value we may receive from their creative thinkers and artists.

Yet cultural interchange in its nature is fundamentally reciprocal. It is necessarily a matter of give-and-take. It means

Address delivered before the Institute of Public Affairs of the University of Virginia, July 8, 1939.



Courtesy of J. A. de Marval

IN THE ARGENTINE PAVILION, NEW YORK WORLD'S FAIR

The great Buenos Aires dailies and the many books published in that metropolis interpret the culture of an important republic.

influencing and being influenced. If we have much of value to contribute to the other American republics, we also have much to receive. It may be salutary to remember that during the colonial period what we commonly call Latin America far outweighed in importance Anglo-Saxon America. During the nineteenth century the balance swung in the other direction. But now the pointer has begun to swing back. The other American republics are growing in economic power and political significance. We may look forward to a day when their population will outstrip our own. It is worthwhile then to turn our thoughts toward the profits which may come to the United States and its people from inter-American exchange in the cultural and intellectual field.

At the start we should do well to recall that a great expanse of our country—running westward from Louisiana and Texas across New Mexico and Arizona to California—has a cultural background on which has been indelibly fixed the Hispanic impress. Language, social institutions and customs, architecture, and many other phases of life bear witness to the strength of the contribution which Spain and Mexico have made to the development of this vast region.

Yet another region of the United States has profited perhaps even more strikingly than the Southwest from Hispanic-American influence. I refer to a contribution all too generally overlooked. Walter Prescott Webb in his notable book, *The Great Plains*, has pointed out that the advancing movement of American pioneers successfully pushed westward during more than two centuries through the forests first of the eastern seaboard, then beyond the Appalachians and then across the Mississippi Valley. But the frontiersmen came to a halt when they reached the Plains country in the neighborhood of the ninety-eighth meridian. The methods and ways of life—means of travel, weapons, tools, systems of agriculture—which had worked in the woods broke down when tried on this vast level, treeless and semi-arid area. For the greater part of half a century, from 1840 to 1885, the frontier stood still; or rather it leaped the Plains to the Pacific Coast.

In this interim the Plains, a broad belt stretching northward from Texas to Montana and the Dakotas, were won for American life by techniques and instruments that had been borrowed originally from Mexico. The horse which entered Texas across the Rio Grande first enabled man to dominate the Plains' immense seas of grass. It was the use of the horse in the management of cattle that created

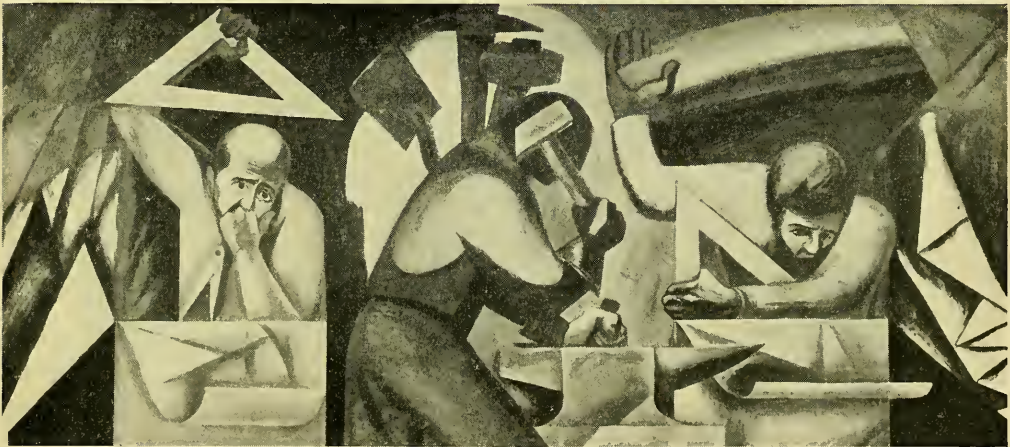
the ranch of the west as distinguished from the stock-farm of the east. The cattle ranch, the range cattle industry were a contribution to the United States from Mexico. It was this contribution which created the Cattle Kingdom in the latter half of the nineteenth century, and gave to our history and tradition, to our present-day motion pictures and "pulp" magazines that most dramatic and dynamic figure of American life—the cowboy.

Mexico is continuing her gifts to us. The artistic renaissance that has accompanied that nation's recent social and economic revolution has been a force markedly influencing art currents in the United States. The Mexican painters evolved in the mural a new technique for the modern world and in their emphasis on the contemporary social struggle for their native land a new attitude toward the content of painting. For almost twenty years our painters and art students have been drawn southward to view the works of José Clemente Orozco, Diego Rivera, David Alfaro Siqueiros, and other

leaders of the Mexican school. The murals by these painters which adorn the walls of the patio of the Ministry of Public Education, the Preparatory School, the National Palace, the Agricultural School at Chapingo, and the Palace of Fine Arts have made of Mexico City a Mecca for art lovers. These pictures reveal a movement which is living and vital as a result of its revolutionary strength, its impetuous force, its biting irony.

We have not only gone to Mexico; we have invited Mexican art to come to us. Pictures by Diego Rivera decorate the walls of the Stock Exchange Club of San Francisco, of the Detroit Institute, and of the Workers School in New York City. Murals by Orozco are to be found at Pomona College in California, at Dartmouth College in New England, and at the New School for Social Research in New York City. In addition numerous pictures by these and other Mexican painters have been acquired by public and private galleries.

One critic has remarked that the



Courtesy of the New School for Social Research

"CREATIVE MAN", BY JOSÉ CLEMENTE OROZCO

Modern Mexican art has exerted a deep influence in many countries and leading artists have been invited to decorate numerous buildings in the United States. This is one of the murals by Orozco at the New School for Social Research in New York City.



Photograph by Beatrice Newhall

SECTION OF A MURAL BY DIEGO RIVERA DEPICTING THE HISTORY OF
MEXICO (NATIONAL PALACE, MEXICO CITY)

"The Mexican painters evolved in the mural a new technique for the modern world and in their emphasis on the contemporary social struggle of their native land a new attitude toward the content of painting."

Mexicans are "a more creative influence in American painting than the modernist French masters. It is even possible that they will give us a tradition from which the American painters will draw. For, as their country like ours belongs to the New World, their work seems to be a part of our actual native expression. Mexico remains the one country which has produced a contemporary plastic art of national dimensions."¹

The influence of the Mexican school has been an important factor in the recent encouragement of mural painting for public buildings in the United States, which has been such a significant development within the past few years. It is worthy of note that the mural, which in production is often a group creation and which exists not for the enjoyment of a privileged few but for all, is essentially a democratic art form.

In music the influence of the "other Americans" has as yet been less significant than in painting. It is only within recent years that composers in the other American republics have sought to make of music a medium for expression of the distinctive quality of their national life, or, as one Mexican composer puts it, "to create a vigorous art that would stem from the people and would reach out to the people." These musicians have rich resources on which to call for development of an independent musical culture. Among North American critics, Aaron Copland and Paul Rosenfeld have pointed out the advantages over composers in the United States possessed, say, by Carlos Chávez, who may draw inspiration from the deep wells of an ancient civilization. Many of Chávez' own compositions are already well known: "The Four Suns", an Aztec ballet; "H. P." (Horse Power: Dance of

Men and Machines) and "Indian Symphony." His "Pirámide" was given its world première by the New York Philharmonic Symphony Orchestra.

In Mexico, as director of the *Orquesta Sinfónica*, Chávez has been giving concerts for ten years to workers and peasants, in addition to his regular subscription audiences at the Palace of Fine Arts. To link the musical tradition of the early Indians to the present day, Chávez developed a special Mexican orchestra to play this characteristic music, in which conventional instruments were complemented by Indian *huéhuetles*, *teponaxtles*, *chirimías*, water drums and rasps. Chávez has himself directed some of our most famous orchestras—the New York Philharmonic, the Boston Symphony, the Philadelphia Symphony.

In the person of Heitor Villa-Lobos, Brazil has given to South America, according to one critic, "its one great genius" among living musicians and "the most significant American composer of the twentieth century."² Villa-Lobos' music has been presented in the United States by our leading orchestras and by the Schola Cantorum of New York; it has been employed by Martha Graham in her dances; it has appeared frequently on the programs of concert soloists.

Villa-Lobos devoted years of study to his people's folklore, traveling through the most remote and isolated sections of the country. He so steeped himself in the cultural traditions of his nation that his music provides a comprehensive and varied picture of the land of his birth. After a stay in Europe, where he had been widely applauded, he returned to Brazil in 1932. He abandoned composing, and has since

¹ Charmion von Wiegand, "Mural Painting in America", *Tale Review*, June 1934.

² William Berrien, "Latin American Composers and Their Problems", *BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION* (Washington), October and November 1937. Citation from the November issue, p. 838.



From a codex

AZTEC MUSICIANS

The Mexican love of music is a heritage from the country's indigenous inhabitants. Carlos Chávez, the well-known composer and orchestra director, uses some of the primitive instruments when his orchestra plays Mexican music.

devoted his major efforts to the musical education of his countrymen, particularly of the school children. It is his theory that the child can best learn to love great music by singing it, and he has arranged for choral rendition the master works of musical history, which are now performed in Brazil by groups of thousands of school children.

Time is not available to speak of other significant composers: of Eduardo Fabini of Uruguay or of Amadeo Roldán, whose music with its Afro-Cuban themes has been performed in New York and at the Hollywood Bowl. The new and dynamic composers of the other American republics are better known to each other, and their music is better known to the outside world, in large part because of the efforts of Curt Lange, the German-Uruguayan, who founded and has maintained with sacrificial enthusiasm the *Boletín Latinoamericano de Música*. A distinctive contribution

to the wider knowledge of Latin American music in the United States has come from the Pan American Union, through the four concerts given each year in Washington, which often have been broadcast over national hookups.

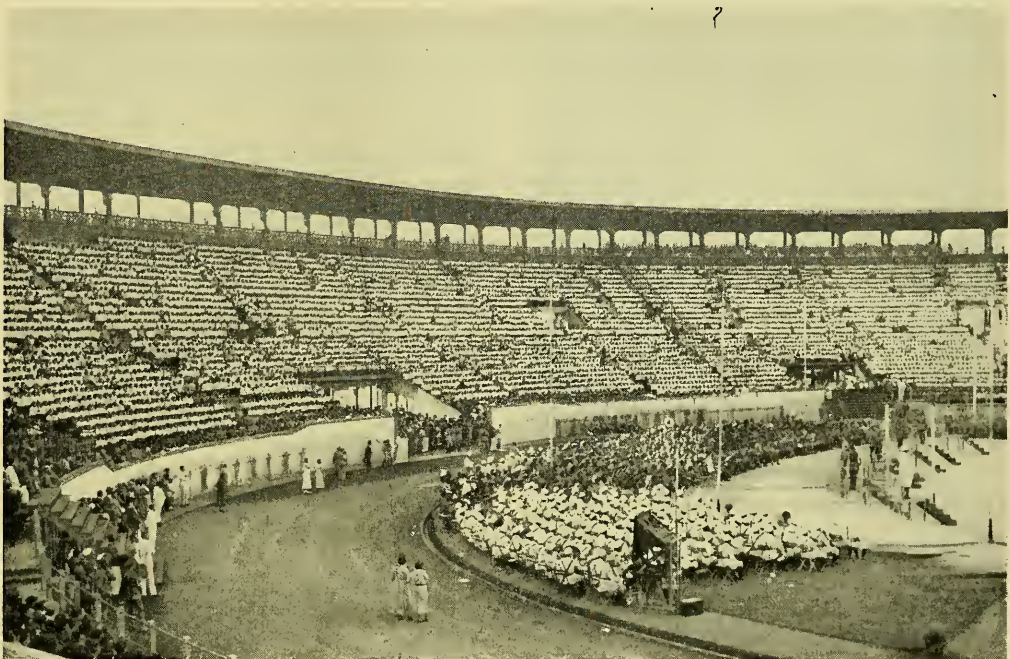
The best friends of the Latin American composers would not have us overrate their accomplishments. They are only at the beginning of the development of an authentic independent movement. To date the serious music of the other American republics has had less extended influence probably than their popular and folk music. In Mexico Manuel Ponce, whose "Estrellita" and "A la orilla de un palmar" are so well loved, initiated as early as 1921 a movement to popularize the *canción mexicana*. "Estrellita" has been the ancestor of numerous Broadway hits. Today this composition and many others of Mexico's melodious popular songs are known far beyond her borders, both in the

United States to the north and in the countries to the south. In this country Aaron Copland has based his "Salón México" on popular tunes. At São Paulo, Brazil, last September I attended a concert in one of the largest theaters given by Pedro Vargas, the Mexican radio tenor. The building was packed by a polyglot audience—Italians, Spaniards, Portuguese, Brazilians, Germans, Syrians, Hungarians and Japanese. The program was made up entirely of Mexican popular songs. *Paulista* audiences have a reputation for coolness, but Vargas' singing brought forth warm applause and insistent demands for encores.

According to some prophets, the popular music of Brazil itself may in the future prove as successful in winning foreign

audiences as has that of Mexico. It may be welcomed in the United States, for this music is marked, as is our own popular music, by a distinctive negroid element. Already well established here are the Argentine *tango*, the Cuban *son* and *rumba*. Our daily radio programs include Mexican, Argentine, Cuban and other Latin American music, and the more serious productions of the composers to the south are finding an increasing place in symphony and concert programs.

Spanish architecture, it is well to recall, came to us through Latin America; and to mention it, particularly that of the "mission" type, is enough to suggest the large influence it has had in the United States. In addition the pre-Columbian styles of the Indian cultures



A CHORUS OF SCHOOL CHILDREN IN RIO DE JANEIRO

The Brazilian Heitor Villa-Lobos is recognized as one of the most notable composers on the American continent. His compositions have been performed by the New York Philharmonic Orchestra and other leading musical organizations and are heard more and more frequently on the radio. He is now devoting his major efforts to the musical education of his countrymen, especially school children.



Courtesy of the University Museum, Philadelphia

A HAND-WOVEN BLOUSE FROM GUATEMALA

The Indian arts of Mexico, Guatemala and Peru are rich sources of motifs for textile designers.

have made their impress, as is exemplified, to cite only one example, by the Mayan Theater of Los Angeles. If we come to the present day, the development of modernist architecture in Mexico has been so significant that in 1937 *The Architectural Record* devoted an entire number to the subject, declaring that the United States cannot boast of a modern architectural movement so solidly based as that to be seen in Mexico.

During recent years we have profited increasingly from the popular arts of the countries to the south. Textiles, rugs, glass and pottery have been employed extensively in interior decoration. One large New York department store carries goods with motifs drawn from the Indian arts of Mexico, Guatemala and Peru. We are producing footwear designed on Ecuadorean models and hats which show the influence of the curious inverted dishpan headgear of the Indian women in Cuzco, Peru.

The above suggestions may suffice to indicate that the United States already owes much to the peoples of the other

American republics in painting, music, architecture and various popular arts. We may expect that the future will see the enhancement of this contribution both in the fields already mentioned and in many other areas of life. For the influence of our neighbors comes to bear upon us, not only directly, but also indirectly, through the students and investigators who in increasing numbers will go out from the United States to do research in the other American republics.

Hispanic America has long attracted our workers in archeology and anthropology. The sites of the Maya culture in Guatemala, Honduras and Yucatan and of the pre-Inca and Inca cultures of Peru, Bolivia and Ecuador—to mention only two areas—have been visited, excavated and studied by numerous North American scholars. Mexico and Peru now possess groups of native workers, headed by Alfonso Caso in the first country and by Julio Tello in the second, who not only know a great deal more about the antiquities of their respective nations than do North Americans, but who have

developed field and laboratory methods that our archeologists recognize as in many ways superior to those in vogue in this country. Thus the opportunity to work in the other American republics has benefited the science of archeology in the United States, and also contributed to a more accurate knowledge of the prehistory of this country. Moreover, a broader concept of the development of Indian cultures in the whole Western Hemisphere has brought with it a clearer understanding of the character and possibilities of our own Indian population. The policy of our Government toward the Indian may well benefit from a comparative study of the policies of other nations in this hemisphere. In fact, Herbert E. Bolton, in his memorable presidential address to the 1932 meeting of the American Historical Association, has pointed out that the entire history of our country is only to be understood if it is studied not as a movement to itself, but rather as part of the epic of that "greater America", which we share with the other nations of this hemisphere.

Mexico's educational program has been carefully surveyed by educators in this country in the hope that it might be suggestive of fundamental solutions, particularly with regard to the needs of different minority groups in the continental United States and in some of its outlying possessions.³ Within recent years large numbers of our teachers and educational authorities have crossed the Rio Grande to view at first hand Mexico's dramatic expansion of rural education, whose goal has been to raise the economic and social level of native peoples speaking different languages and possessing different customs and traditions, and to "incorporate"

these peoples into the country's civilization and culture. Efforts have also been directed toward making the school a constructive community center, an agency which will provide not only instruction but also serve to improve agricultural methods and standards of health and hygiene, and otherwise contribute to social welfare. After a visit to Mexico, Professor John Dewey declared: "There is no educational movement in the world which exhibits more of the spirit of intimate union of school activities with those of the community than is found in this Mexican development."

The experience of the other American republics with regard to another racial group, the Negro, may also prove of value



Collection of Museum of Archeology, Lima

A PERUVIAN PORTRAIT JAR

Ancient Peruvian pottery is interesting not only from an archeological but also from an artistic viewpoint

³ Katharine M. Cook, "The House of the People" (Washington, United States Government Printing Office, 1932).



Courtesy of the National Tourist Commission, Habana

THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY, HABANA

The Department of Parasitology in the Medical School of the University of Habana is ranked by some authorities as the best in the world.

to our students of social relations. In this hemisphere Brazil is second only to the United States in the numbers of its colored population. All phases of its economic, social and political development have been profoundly influenced by the presence of millions of Negroes and mulattos. For example, the writings of Nina Rodrigues, Gilberto Freyre and Arthur Ramos have led to a revaluation of the African contribution to that country's development, somewhat similar in character to the reinterpretation of the role of the Indian in national culture that has taken place in Mexico. The African influence on Brazilian language, cooking, architecture, music, painting and poetry is being stud-

ied with intense interest and sympathy.⁴

Thus the twenty other American republics may serve observers and students as an immense social laboratory, not only in the relationships between differing racial groups, but also in the field of agricultural organization, the application of government control to economic activities and other questions. Interchange in the areas of tropical agriculture and tropical medicine may also bring direct benefits to the United States. Time is not available to attempt any discussion of these fields, but passing reference may be made to the Department of Parasitology in the Medical

⁴ See "Brazilian Painting in New York," by Robert C. Smith, p. 500.—EDITOR.

School of the University of Habana, which is ranked by some authorities as the best in the world. Very fine work has been done in Brazil, much of it in the Chagas Institute, in the field of South American dysenteries and other diseases. The Butantan Institute in Brazil has attained international leadership in the development of serums against snake bites, and the United States has profited from its work by the establishment of a branch station in this country.

Cultural interchange with the other American republics may offer to the United States—in addition to such direct contributions as have been already mentioned in painting, music, architecture and popular arts, and such indirect contributions as may result from the observations and researches of our students—profits of a more general and less tangible character. Our philosophy of life may be modified, our scale of values supplemented, our point of view enlarged by continuing contacts with our neighbors in this hemisphere.

During my recent trip to South America I was profoundly impressed by the attitude of these peoples toward the future. In a world shadowed by dark portents, they have retained their optimism. In contrast with the prevailing attitude in Europe, in contrast with the shift in attitude which has taken place in this country since 1929, they definitely believe that the best lies

ahead, not behind. They look to the future with confidence, assured that it will in its time bring to fruition their hopes and dreams.

In conclusion then, the profits of cultural interchange are real. The future may bring them to us far more abundantly than has the past. Both the United States and the other American republics remained colonies in the cultural sense long after their political bonds with the mother countries had been broken. We looked to Britain for our models and standards; the countries to the south looked to Spain and France. But now we and they are coming of age. Both of us are learning to stand on our own feet, and to have confidence in our own judgments as to what is good in intellectual and cultural achievement. We in this hemisphere are developing, some more slowly than others, a culture which is not borrowed from across the seas, or reflected from other and older nations, but which is our own, which is made in America. Therefore the time is ripe as it has never been before for exchange between the two Americas. In the past the east-west bonds linking both Americas to Europe have been strong. Neither of us would see those bonds weakened. But now the two Americas have something to give each other. The argosies of the spirit for this hemisphere may come from the south and north, as well as from the east and west.

Brazilian Painting in New York

ROBERT C. SMITH, PH. D.

Assistant Director, The Hispanic Foundation, Library of Congress

THE WORLD'S FAIR has brought to New York this summer the most comprehensive showing of the contemporary art of Latin America ever realized in this country. Among the nations of South America Brazil has been most generous in revealing the work of her present day painters in an offering that ranges from conservative academic production to the most stalwart examples of modern regional art.

At the exhibition of Latin American art held in the new Riverside Museum and organized under the auspices of the Secretary of Agriculture, Brazil is represented by some thirty-five canvases. These were submitted by the outstanding members of the Brazilian Association of Fine Arts of Rio de Janeiro, men and women whose work reflects a more conservative outlook than that of the modern painters of São Paulo and Pernambuco. Theirs is still the tradition of the early twenties, founded on impressionism and reflecting Parisian influences from a variety of sources in landscapes, portraits, still lifes and genre scenes. Although the subject matter of these paintings is largely Brazilian, so strong is the international quality of their style that it is often difficult to distinguish a particular work from similar output in Chile, Argentina, and Uruguay.

Such a picture is the beautifully painted *Shadows of Life* by Maria Margarida. It is a still life of two collars, a clothes-line, and an iron resting upon a diminutive brick. The uniformity of the white walls and table-cloth accents the delicacy of the blue shadows of the freshly laundered collars, the texture and coloring of the

clothes-pin and the brick, the minutely studied grain in the wooden handle of the iron. The freshness and crispness of the technique hark back to the seventeenth century still life painters of northern Europe in a tradition already established in France by Philippe Roy and Salvador Dali. It is a part of the new naturalism that twenty years ago began to take the place of impressionist painting even in academic circles, but without the special ideologies that usually accompanied the change. Maria Margarida is not a belated cubist, nor a surrealist, nor a militant regionalist like Grant Wood. Her attitude is as straightforward as the seventeenth century Dutch masters themselves, unswerving in its desire to record accurately what the painter has observed. Yet the linear pattern of the objects and their shadows as well as the general taste of the arrangement afford a lightness and delicacy which keep the whole together.

On the other hand Jordão de Oliveira's atmospheric landscape is purely impressionist in derivation. He has painted a group of thatched houses, the *mucambos* of the Brazilian littoral, beneath the slowly moving palm trees on the beach of Atalaia in Sergipe. This is a type of illustrative picture which for years has enjoyed great popularity in Brazil, as indeed it has everywhere. But the simplicity of its arrangement saves the work from being banal. One delights in the vivid pattern of the moving palm trees, tenuously drawn to be sure, but strangely similar in their expressiveness to those of the water-colors of Winslow Homer.

"SHADOWS OF
LIFE", BY MARIA
MARGARIDA



Photographs courtesy of the Brazilian World's Fair Commission

"ATALAIA, SERGIPE", BY JORDÃO DE OLIVEIRA



"SÃO PEDRO DOS CLERIGOS,
RECIFE", BY DEMETRIO
ISMAILOVITCH

Courtesy of the Brazilian World's Fair Commission

As in Mexico, Peru, and Colombia, there is in Brazil a growing interest on the part of painters in recording the glories of the national colonial architecture. To this movement Demetrio Ismailovitch has made an important contribution in his painting of São Pedro dos Clerigos in Recife, a church begun by the architect Ferreira Jacome in 1729. From the standpoint of color the picture ranks high in the exhibition. The elaborate façade is a subtle study in greys and browns set against a delicate blue-green sky. The delicious pink coloring of the houses at the sides painted with a studied folk art naiveté contrasts

with the nervous calligraphy of the grille on the *parvis* and the baroque lamp bracket, so characteristic a feature of the old Pernambucan city. This linear quality is the dominant element of the picture; Ismailovitch's slight irregularities of draughtsmanship enhance remarkably the vitality of the painting.

These are the outstanding Brazilian pictures in the exhibit at the Riverside Museum. One remembers also the *Men and Boats of My Country*, an impressionist study in light and shade by Oswaldo Teixeira, the director of the new Museum of Fine Arts in Rio de Janeiro, whose

Mater is the only Brazilian work in the exhibition at the International Business Machines building at the Fair; the *Fire Dance* of Helios Seelinger, which reflects the voodoo magic of the Brazilian Negroes; and the splendidly painted academic nude, *In a Painter's Studio*, of Manoel Costantino, who is this year's winner of the national award for European study. One cannot but regret, however, that the strong Paulista school is not represented in the Riverside show, nor the powerful social commentaries of the young Pernambucan Cicero Dias.

For its pavilion at the World's Fair the Brazilian government commissioned Candido Portinari to paint three murals rep-

resenting different regions of the nation.¹ The artist, who is at the present time completing a monumental series of frescoes involving the regional occupations of Brazil for the new building of the Ministry of Education and Health in Rio de Janeiro, can claim the title of the Brazilian Diego Rivera. Born in the state of São Paulo in 1903, he has only recently turned to the fresco medium and the indigenous subject matter of the Mexican master. His peculiarly powerful style and vigorous mannerisms are especially adapted to monumental

¹ The painter's work was first seen in this country when he exhibited his *Coffee* at the Carnegie International in Pittsburg in 1935, at which he won a second honorable mention. It is high time that he be given a comprehensive exhibition in this country.



Courtesy of the Museum of Modern Art

"MORRO", BY CANDIDO PORTINARI



Courtesy of the artist

PAINTINGS BY CANDIDO
PORTINARI AT THE
WORLD'S FAIR

At side: "Pernambucan Fishermen";
below: "Baian Life"; on opposite page:
"Gaúcho Life."

productions. He seems now to be one of the outstanding painters of the Americas and if his influence continues to grow he will undoubtedly produce in Brazil a movement comparable to the Mexican Renaissance.

In the central fresco at the Brazilian pavilion Portinari has pictured the life of the Baian² waterfront. Three colossal negroes in picturesque Baian turbans and elaborate flounced dresses dominate the foreground, along with a pair of stalwart girls obviously inspired by Picasso. Behind, another monumental woman is seated, gazing blankly out to sea. At her side two mulatto boys are playing leap-frog. A coiled rope, a jug, a leather trunk complete the picture.

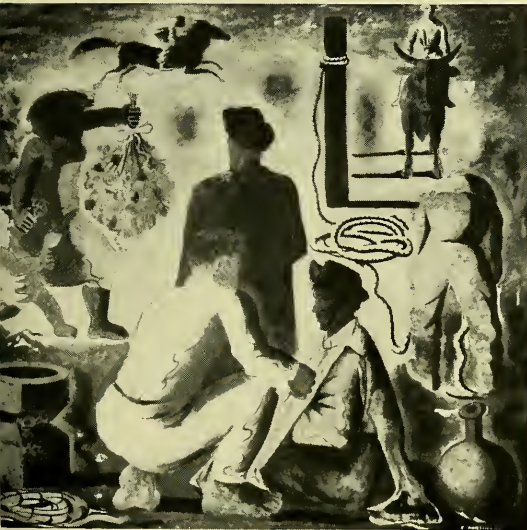
Portinari, like Rivera, paints the simple folk of his country, dignifying their humble occupations in monumental portrayal. The common folk of Mexico are largely Indians and mestizos; those of Brazil are negroes and mulattoes. So far the two painters are fellow travelers. But Rivera's drawing is based on a simplified study of



fifteenth century Italian frescoes. Portinari's drawing is distorted for dramatic effect. Rivera's backgrounds are naturalistic, based on perspective. Portinari prefers to discard perspective in order to create a more lively pattern. Rivera's color is distinguished for its warmth of tone; Portinari's palette is based on the coolest blues, greens, whites and shimmering blacks.

² i. e., of Baia (revised spelling of Bahia).—EDITOR.

Throughout the frescoes one is aware of an overpowering movement, heightened by an arbitrary chiaroscuro, expressive of a great country in process of development. In the Pernambucan mural it is the life of the fishermen at sea that Portinari depicts. The wind sweeps through the sails of a crude wooden raft, a *jangada*, while two men vigorously direct the course of the craft and a woman hauls up a net. The composition is rounded off by two other *jangadas* carrying female passengers of heroic proportions. In the third fresco we see a scene from the gaucho life of the extreme south of Brazil. Here again the stalwart figures of the cowboys and their simple gestures introduce the monumental note of the picture. Yet Portinari has balanced force with grace in the delicately drawn horse at full gallop in the background, the expressive coiled rope in the lower left hand corner, and the lariat attached to a high post. These are heroic figures, huge of feet and hands, bulging of muscles, direct of gesture and speech, epic of action. There is no subtlety about them; they stand out as simple people should, forceful and direct.



The variety of Portinari's style is illustrated by his painting *Morro* at the exhibition *Art in Our Time* at the Museum of Modern Art. Here he has laid aside not only the fresco technique but his monumentality as well. He becomes almost a folk painter working in microcosm, with a slight bent toward caricature. It is a hill in a poor negro quarter teeming with the sort of life described by Fran Martins in his recent novel *Ponta da Rua*. The city is probably Rio de Janeiro because of the stylized skyscrapers, the bay with its mountains, the plane, and the ship. But it is the hill itself, the *morro*, which preoccupies the painter. Everywhere women with misshapen bodies, carrying cans of water on their heads, are toiling back and forth between the tiny zinc-roofed houses. Children are running with shrill cries from one adult to another. A young negro, reminiscent of Thomas Benton's figures in his sharply drawn profile and angular form, is lounging in a doorway. The immobile face of a gigantic negress, a practitioner of voodoo magic, gazes straight ahead from the window upon which she is leaning. In the rich red of the earth, the scintillating blues and greens of the sea and the foliage, one senses the oppressive tropical heat.

The painting, apart from its artistic merits, is an invaluable social document. The life of the Brazilian metropolis is, like that of our southern cities, inextricably bound up with the life of the negro communities within its boundaries. Portinari shows that complex life without sentimentality or undue vulgarity. In the *Morro* as well as in the World's Fair frescoes he remains the straightforward, understanding painter of the Brazilian lower classes. His work completes the picture presented during the last decade by the work of the Brazilian novelists Fran Martins, Lins do Rêgo, Nelio Reis, and Cyro dos Anjos, by

the negrologists Arthur Ramos and Edison Carneiro, and by the social historian Gilberto Freyre.

The paintings at the Riverside Museum and those of Candido Portinari represent two distinct tendencies in modern Brazilian art. Both are international in inspiration; the one derives from the studios and academies of Europe, the other from the walls of modern Mexican buildings. But of the two the latter seems to be more

representative of Brazil, more American in the vigor of its regional flavor. In many ways it is clearly reminiscent of recent painting in this country. On the other hand it is related to the work of José Sabogal in Peru and to the new Cuban school. It is an essential part of the new American style that has evolved from the Mexican frescoes of the nineteen twenties and that now constitutes one of the most important forces in modern art.

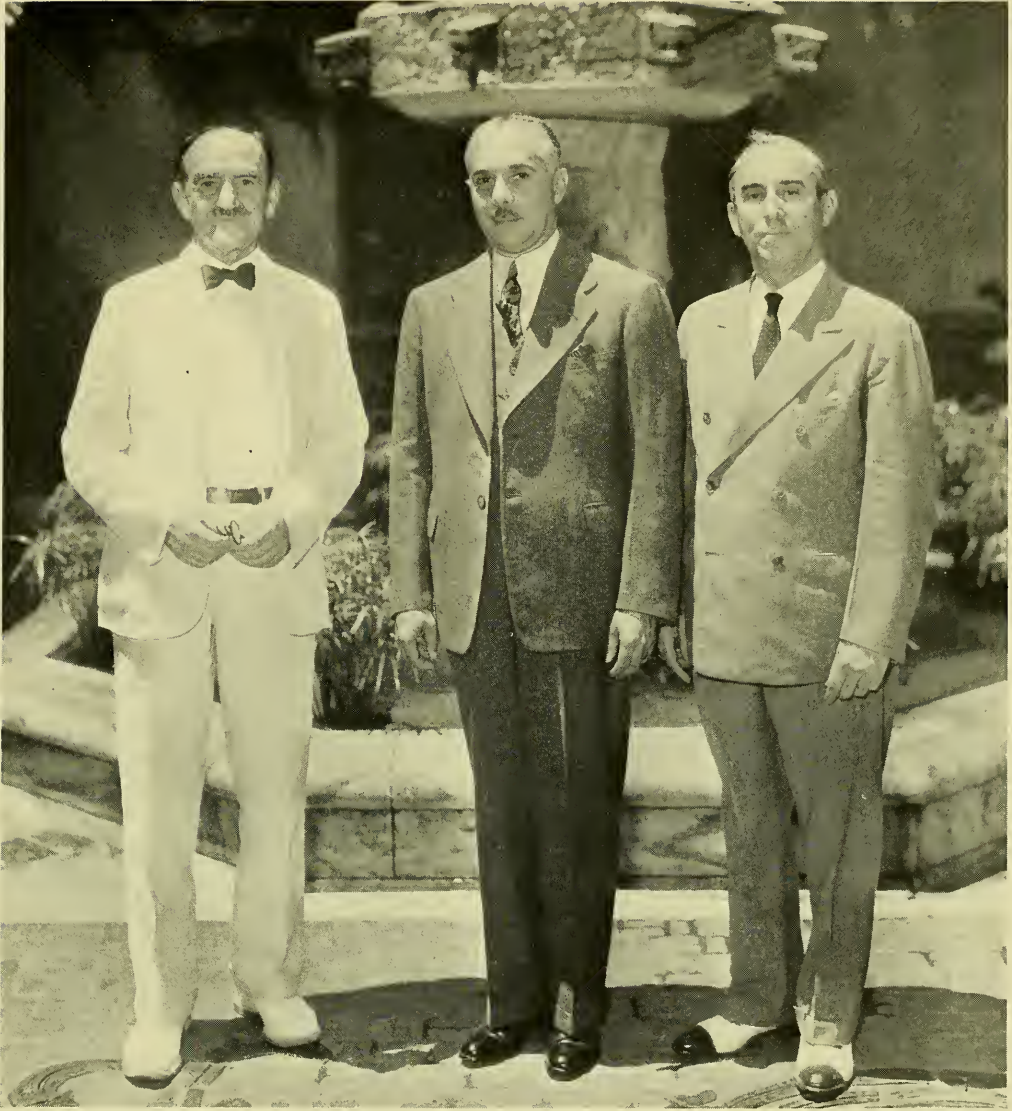
Visit of General Rafael L. Trujillo to Washington

GENERAL RAFAEL LEONIDAS TRUJILLO MOLINA, ex-President of the Dominican Republic and Chief of Staff of the Army, made an unofficial visit to Washington last July to strengthen the friendly relations existing between his country and the United States.

After landing at Miami from his yacht, the *Ramfis*, General Trujillo, accompanied by the Honorable Andrés Pastoriza, Minister of the Dominican Republic to the United States, and the Honorable Rafael Espaillat de la Mota, Consul General of the Dominican Republic in New York, who went to Miami to receive him; Dr. Francisco Benzo, Secretary of Health and personal physician of the Ex-president; Señor Emilio García Godoy, Minister of the Dominican Republic to Cuba; Señor Virgilio Álvarez Pina, President of the Santo Domingo District Council; Colonel Antonio Leyba Pou and Captain Salvador Cobián Parra, aides; and J. M. Bonetti Burgos, private

secretary, General Trujillo proceeded to Washington by train. He was met in the President's Room at the Union Station by Laurence Duggan, Chief of the Division of American Republics, Department of State; Stanley Woodward, Assistant Chief of Protocol, Department of State; the Honorable R. Henry Norweb, American Minister to the Dominican Republic; the Honorable Colón Eloy Alfaro, Ambassador of Ecuador to the United States, and the Honorable Élie Lescot, Minister of Haiti, as well as by officers of the Army, Navy and Marine Corps, including Lt. Col. A. R. Harris, assigned by the War Department as General Trujillo's special aide during his stay in Washington. General Trujillo said in response to the greetings extended to him:

I am happy to be on American soil and I am profoundly grateful to the American Government for the cordial welcome extended to me. I bring greetings from the Dominican Government and people for the American Government and people. We are sincerely bound to the policy



GENERAL TRUJILLO AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

In the center of the picture stands General Trujillo; at the right, the Hon. Andrés Pastoriza, Minister of the Dominican Republic to the United States; and at the left, the Hon. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union.

of peace and harmony of the American continent and I offer my heartiest cooperation to the service of its ideals.

During his brief stay General Trujillo was extensively entertained in official and diplomatic circles. Among his hosts were

President Roosevelt; the Honorable Élie Lescot, Minister of Haiti; General George C. Marshall, Chief of Staff of the Army; Major General Commandant Thomas Holcomb, U. S. M. C.; Major General James C. Breckinridge, Commanding

General, Marine Barracks, Quantico and Colonel Thomas Watson, U. S. M. C. General Trujillo was received by the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State.

In replying to the welcome of Senator Green at the luncheon offered him at the Capitol by a group of senators, General Trujillo said:

No one could refuse the honor of speaking in this place, which was the cradle and is now the headquarters of democracy in the New World. For that reason I welcome the kind invitation of my friend Senator Green to speak on this occasion; for that reason, and also because I should like to tell you something of the contribution that the Dominican nation is making to second your eager efforts on behalf of continental solidarity.

The significance of the Senate of the United States of America in the history of man's efforts to guarantee the ideal of human liberty in the world, is known by all the nations of America and is recognized as one of the most notable features of the institutions of this great democracy. The Senate is intimately linked with glorious traditions which have constantly defended the highest principles of civilization, and with the effort to maintain the supreme ideal of human concord among all nations.

Ever since the Dominican Republic achieved liberty and independence, it has based its institutions on the fundamental principles expressed in the Constitution of the United States. Disciplining its energies, honorably developing its scanty economic resources, and adjusting its national life to the norms of order, work, and progress, it is emulating, in its own small way, the example of juridical order that your great nation offers, which is the most solid and vigorous support which justice and right can count on in the world. My greatest concern as a statesman has always been to maintain the tradition of such institutions in my country.

Since 1930, when my fellow citizens elevated me to the Presidency of the Republic, one of my staunchest aims has been to strengthen the friendship between our two countries and put it on a permanent basis. I take pride in declaring that the Dominican Republic, during my administration as President and under my inspiration since I voluntarily, and against the wishes of my people, refused reelection to that high office, has never for a single moment failed to uphold, by every means at its command, the policy of continental unity.

And as long as I represent and direct the chief political forces in my country, the Dominican Republic in the Caribbean Sea will be in the van in defending the ideals of the good neighbor policy among the nations of the continent. That policy of solidarity with the United States of America has no hidden purpose. We have not sought, in return for our cooperation, any economic return, nor have we had our commercial interest in mind. We have not tried to obtain any kind of material advantages by offering to the people and to the Government of the United States our hearty support of its policy of continental unity and preservation.

We are fully conscious of the destiny which is ours by right of membership in the American community, and by right of geographical situation. My visit then, Gentlemen of the Senate, is purely one of good will. In spite of the serious depression that the world is experiencing the Dominican Republic, during my two recent administrations, has balanced its budget and adjusted its public expenses to its revenues; this it has been able to do without recourse to loans. Moreover, it has paid off the greater part of its internal floating debt and paid punctually and fully, up to now, the interest and amortization due on foreign loans contracted by administrations previous to mine.

But, it is only fair to point out, the supreme effort involved could not be carried out except by constant and painful sacrifices on the part of the Dominican government. This fact, among other considerations, led my Government to start negotiations whereby by means of a frank and friendly understanding with the United States the onerous conditions imposed on the Dominican Republic by the anachronistic Dominican-American Convention of 1924 might be improved. The prejudicial provisions of this instrument will always wound our national susceptibilities, and it is to be hoped that a revision of its essential clauses may be the subject of friendly efforts on the part of both governments, united as their respective peoples are in a common destiny and in a cordial and generous unity of ideals.

My visit, I repeat, is purely one of good will. My chief reason for undertaking it is to strengthen the existing friendly ties, fortunately more cordial than at any other time, between this great country and the Dominican Republic. The essential object of my trip to the United States would be fully realized if this journey should help us to a better understanding of each other, to a greater appreciation of our efforts, made under the adverse conditions which I have just mentioned, to show

to the world that a small nation, by its virtue, by its industry, by its unswerving devotion to progress and by the honorable fulfillment of its obligations and faithfulness to its pledged word, can become a great nation.

I shall return to my country pleased and grateful if I can carry back to my fellow citizens the conviction that the sincere, cordial, and productive friendship between the people and the government of the United States and the people and the government of the Dominican Republic, shall always be in accord with the memorable words of one of your most distinguished statesmen: "The Lord has made us neighbors; let justice make us friends."

I am sincerely grateful for the tribute paid me by my dear friend Senator Green, as well as for the opportunity that it has given me to be with the other members of the Senate who have joined with him on this pleasant occasion.

While General Trujillo was in Washington he visited many places of interest in the city and its environs. At the tombs of Washington and the Unknown Soldier he deposited floral tributes. The Pan American Union, the Marine Corps Barracks in Washington and Quantico, the Naval Academy at Annapolis, Fort Hunt, Fort Meade, Fort Myer, the Experiment Farm of the Department of Agriculture, Federal housing projects, the Navy Yard, a C. C. C. camp, all claimed his attention. At Fort Meade and Quantico reviews were held in his honor.

The elaborate reception which was to have been given on July 8 by the Dominican Minister and Madame Pastoriza in General Trujillo's honor was postponed at his request to July 27, because of the death of the Hon. Claude A. Swanson, Secretary of the Navy. In the meantime, General Trujillo went to New York, where he called on Mayor La Guardia, was received with honors at the World's Fair and entertained at luncheon by Grover Whalen, president of the Fair Corporation. A large dinner was given for him at the Biltmore by the Pan American Society of New York and the Dominican Chamber of Commerce. After cruising up the Hudson to West Point in his yacht, visiting other places of interest, and being lavishly entertained, General Trujillo returned to Washington.

There he was again the object of many attentions, including not only the reception but also functions given by the Hon. Colón Eloy Alfaro, Ambassador of Ecuador, Senator and Mrs. Ernest Lundeen, and Dr. and Mrs. Frederick Benton.

Leaving Washington and his many friends there, General Trujillo proceeded to New York and sailed for France on August 2.



Courtesy of the Gulf Oil Corporation

A VENEZUELAN OIL FIELD

United States petroleum companies have large investments in Venezuela, which in 1938 was the leading crude petroleum exporting country in the world.

Commercial Relations between Latin America and the United States

JOHN M. LEDDY

Division of Economic Information, Pan American Union

THERE ARE numerous aspects of commercial relations between Latin America and the United States, but two only are treated in this article: the foundation for trade between the two areas, and current trade trends.

Foundation for trade

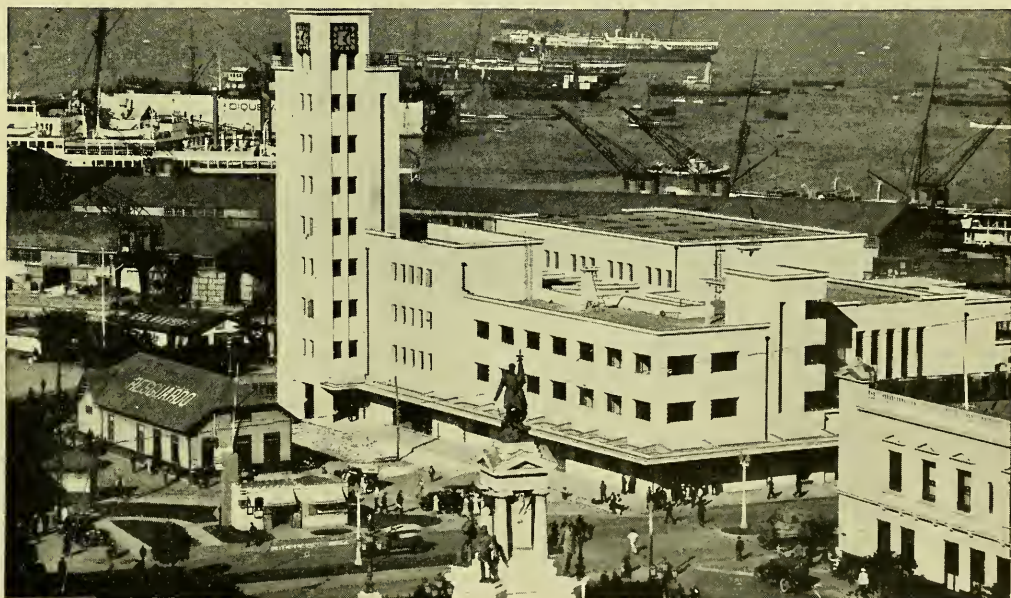
The traditional premise of international trade everywhere is the geographical division of labor, or, in a broad sense, the presence of complementary economies among the various countries of the world,

each producing goods needed but not produced by some of the others. With respect to the United States and Latin America, such a complementary situation exists to a considerable degree, a large volume of trade being carried on through the exchange of North American manufactures for Latin American raw materials, mostly tropical foodstuffs and minerals. Naturally, there are several important products grown or extracted in both areas that enter into direct competition in the world market. Among these

may be mentioned petroleum, wheat, meats and cotton, all of them highly significant not only in the export trade of the United States but also in that of one or more of the Latin American republics. Nevertheless, exports from the two regions are mainly of a reciprocal nature and do not conflict with each other. Coffee, cane sugar, cocoa, bananas, carnauba wax, linseed and other oilseeds, wool, tin, manganese, nitrate and other Latin American products must be imported into the United States from abroad either in whole or in part, while the countries of Latin America, although some have developed limited manufacturing facilities, must look to foreign sources for supplies of iron and steel manufactures, machinery, textiles, fuels, and automotive vehicles.

The two areas are also financially complementary, a fact which has an important

although indirect bearing on trade relations. The Latin American republics are without exception debtor countries, requiring a surplus of commodity exports over commodity imports sufficient in value to provide for payment abroad of interest and dividends on foreign investments, shipping services, and other invisible items necessitating the exportation of capital. The United States, on the other hand, is a creditor nation with large investments in Latin America and elsewhere; of total United States long-term investments abroad in 1938, amounting to \$11,070 millions, \$4,050 millions, or almost 37 percent, were invested in Latin America. Because of this, the United States ordinarily purchases more in Latin America than it sells there, the difference being explained by Latin American remittances of the invisible items mentioned.



THE HARBOR OF VALPARAISO

Taking advantage of the fact that it is summer in Chile when winter is reigning in the United States, the former country exports to the latter delicious melons, grapes and nectarines.



SUGAR CANE

Cuba is the largest grower of sugar cane in the world and supplies a considerable part of the United States demand.

Current trends

United States exports to Latin America, following the general pattern indicated above, are today affected by three leading factors: (1) competition from other countries exporting similar products but following different methods of trading; (2) the commercial policies of the Latin American republics; and (3) the volume of their exports. The last is particularly important, for, as the Latin American republics are predominantly "raw material" countries, each of them producing large surpluses of a limited number of commodities, their prosperity depends to an unusual degree upon the amount of exports and the prices they bring. When exports increase, purchasing power also increases and the market for foreign imports is thereby widened. Since the depression of 1930, which brought with it a drastic fall in the prices of their leading export commodities, the republics to the south have been attempting to broaden export markets by diversification of products. While steady improvement has taken place since 1932, the year 1938 again witnessed a sharp drop in exports, chiefly because of lower world prices—international quotations on coffee, cotton, wheat, sugar and tin were all considerably reduced from the level of the previous year.

Latin American commercial policies have been manifested in the establishment of exchange controls, import licenses, and tariffs, and in the negotiation of trade agreements. Either exchange control or import license systems or both have been in effect in virtually all Latin American countries since 1930, and have represented in the main efforts on the part of these countries to maintain a surplus of commodity exports over commodity imports in the face of low world prices for their export products. Recognizing the fact that such systems tend to impede the flow

of international trade, the Eighth International Conference of American States, held at Lima in December of 1938, adopted a resolution reflecting the attitude of the Conference on the subject; a partial transcription of the resolution is as follows:

CONSIDERING:

That the full economic development of nations requires the greatest possible volume of mutually profitable international trade;

That such a volume of trade cannot be developed while excessive barriers exist whether in the form of (a) unreasonably high tariffs; (b) quotas, licenses, exchange controls and other types of quantitative restriction; (c) methods of administering commercial, exchange and monetary policies which impair the maintenance of complete equality of commercial opportunity as between all foreign suppliers. . . .

The Eighth International Conference of American States

RESOLVES:

1. To reaffirm the declarations of the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo and the Conference for the Maintenance of Peace at Buenos Aires calling upon the American Governments to reduce, to the greatest extent found possible, all existing types of restrictions upon international trade.

2. To endorse the negotiation of trade agreements, embodying the principle of equality of treatment, as the most beneficial and effective method of extending and facilitating international trade

The chief instrument of United States commercial policy in recent years has been the reciprocal trade program, under which numerous reciprocal trade agreements embracing most-favored-nation clauses have been negotiated with Latin American countries. Under this type of agreement, tariff reductions or concessions made by one country to another are automatically extended to all other countries that do not discriminate against the country granting such reductions or concessions. In this way the traditional principle of triangular trade (*e. g.*, Brazilian cocoa to France, French toiletries to the United States and



Courtesy of J. A. de Marval

ARGENTINE PAVILION, NEW YORK WORLD'S FAIR

The cases at the entrance of this pavilion contain beautiful glassware, fine woolen textiles, hats, and hand-some luggage, exemplifying the progress of Argentine industry.

United States manufactures to Brazil) is maintained and countries are free to purchase and sell in whatever markets may prove to be most advantageous. To date the United States has concluded reciprocal trade agreements with ten Latin American countries, namely, Cuba, Haiti, Brazil, Honduras, Colombia, Guatemala, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Costa Rica and Ecuador, listed in the order in which the agreements became effective.

Directly opposed to the reciprocal trade policy is that advocating the use of compensation or barter trade agreements. Adopted by several countries, the most important of which is Germany, compensation agreements have for their purpose the balanced exchange of commodities as

between any two countries so as to eliminate or diminish the necessity for remittances of foreign exchange. Thus, under a model and rigidly enforced agreement of the compensation type, exports from, say, Brazil to Germany, would exactly equal exports from Germany to Brazil; accounts would be kept in *askimarks* or other compensation marks having no international circulation and therefore useless for the purchase of other than German commodities. The effect of compensation agreements is to canalize trade, to direct it into unvarying routes and so prevent free competition on a price and quality basis. Numerous such agreements have been negotiated between European and Latin American countries. The latter have generally been forced to



Courtesy of J. A. de Marval

MAIN HALL, ARGENTINE PAVILION

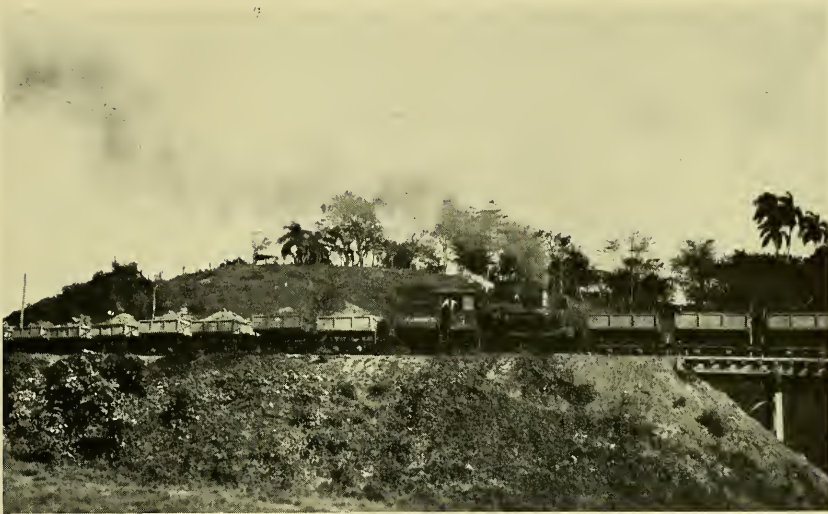
The mural at the end of the hall represents grain and livestock, important products entering into Argentine trade which, as the map at the side shows, extends to all the world.



Courtesy of Luis Neftali Ponce

ECUADOREAN PRODUCTS

The Ecuadorean Pavilion at the New York World's Fair shows the products for which the country is famous. Above: Cocoa, one of the tropical products that must be imported into the United States. Below: So-called "Panama" hats, the finest of which are made in Ecuador.



Courtesy of C. R. Cameron

TRANSPORTING MANGANESE IN CUBA

Brazil and Cuba are Latin American sources of manganese, a mineral which it is necessary for the United States to import for use in the steel industry.

trade in this manner because of low world prices for their export products and the economic necessity of placing abroad otherwise unsalable commodities. During 1937, when prices experienced an upturn, there was a noticeable trend towards more liberal trade policies, several reciprocal trade agreements were negotiated, and in many cases exchange controls were relaxed. In the year 1938, which brought a recurrence of low prices, exchange controls or licensing systems were again tightened, notably in Argentina, Uruguay and Ecuador.

With respect to competition from other countries, the United States' share in Latin America's import trade has not decreased in recent years but has, on the whole, advanced. From the table presented below, which shows percentage shares of total imports into the Latin American republics corresponding to the United States, Germany, and Great Britain in the years 1937 and 1938, it will be noted

that the United States' percentages are uniformly high and are exceeded (in 1938) by those of Great Britain only in the case of Argentina and Uruguay and by those of Germany only in the case of Brazil and Uruguay. In 1938, in nine out of the eighteen countries cited, *i. e.*, in Colombia, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama and Venezuela, the United States' share of total imports was more than 50 percent. In 1938, as compared with 1937, the United States increased its share of the total import trade of twelve of the eighteen republics, namely, Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and Venezuela. At the same time, Germany increased its share in the case of eight of the republics: Brazil, Colombia, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Peru and Uruguay, while the share of Great Britain, on the other hand, declined in the case of seventeen of the

eighteen countries listed. From these figures it is evident that German compensation policies in Latin America have operated against Great Britain rather than

against the United States, which has been able not only to maintain its markets but to expand them, as is shown in the following table:

Percentage shares of the import trade of the Latin American Republics corresponding to the United States, Germany and Great Britain in the calendar years 1937 and 1938

[Calculated in the currencies of the respective countries]

	United States		Germany		Great Britain	
	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938
Argentina	16.4	17.6	10.4	10.1	18.9	18.3
Brazil	23.1	24.2	23.9	25.0	12.1	10.4
Chile	29.1	27.7	26.0	25.7	10.9	10.5
Colombia	48.4	51.2	13.4	17.3	18.8	12.3
Costa Rica	42.5	49.1	23.1	19.8	7.2	6.6
Cuba	68.6	70.9	4.5	4.4	4.9	4.2
Dominican Republic	52.3	53.5	7.7	7.6	6.7	5.0
Ecuador	39.6	34.6	24.1	24.1	10.1	7.7
El Salvador	40.4	46.7	31.1	21.1	11.4	9.1
Guatemala	45.3	44.7	32.4	35.1	8.3	5.9
Haiti ¹	51.0	54.3	7.1	6.4	17.8	15.5
Honduras ²	58.0	62.0	9.0	11.1	3.2	3.0
Mexico	62.1	57.8	16.0	18.8	4.7	4.1
Nicaragua	54.2	59.7	15.2	10.0	8.5	8.2
Panama	52.0	57.4	5.4	6.2	5.8	4.8
Peru	35.5	34.3	19.7	20.3	10.3	10.1
Uruguay	13.6	12.1	11.0	16.8	16.8	19.8
Venezuela ³	53.2	58.6	13.8	11.4	10.1	7.1

¹ 12-month periods from October to September.

² 1937-38 period of 11 months only, from August 1, 1937 to June 30, 1938; 1936-37 period of 12 months from August 1, 1936 to July 31, 1937.

³ First half of each year only.

Julián R. Cáceres

New Minister of Honduras



DR. JULIÁN R. CÁCERES presented to President Roosevelt his letters of credence as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Honduras to the United States on July 18, 1939. An ardent admirer of this country, Dr. Cáceres has worked unceasingly to strengthen the relations between Honduras and the United States since 1933, when President Tiburcio Carías A. appointed him First Secretary of the Honduran Legation in Washington. Since that date Dr. Cáceres has several times been Chargé d'Affaires, the position he held when appointed Minister.

The new Minister of Honduras was born at Comayagua, at one time capital of Honduras, on October 6, 1892. Under the guidance of the well known Honduran writer and statesman, Don Francisco Cáceres, he completed his early education at Comayagua and Tegucigalpa. Later he

went to El Salvador, where he studied sciences and letters, returning to Honduras to enroll at the Central University at Tegucigalpa, where he obtained his degree in political and social science. In 1920 the Supreme Court accepted him as a member of the Honduran bar, and for some years he practiced law at San Pedro Sula.

During the administration of President Bertrand, Dr. Cáceres was appointed Chief Clerk in the Ministry for Foreign Affairs and later Chief of the President's corps of secretaries. Shortly afterwards he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies. In 1928 he represented his country at the boundary negotiations between Honduras and Guatemala which, under the auspices of the United States, took place at Cuyam. During the administration of President Paz Baraona he served as Governor of several of the departments into which the Republic is divided.

Dr. Cáceres is a member of numerous learned societies in Honduras, and is distinguished as a writer on social and political subjects. A historical essay by him appeared in the November 1938 issue of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union. It is interesting to add that his wife, Doña Mariana Culotta de Cáceres, was recently appointed by the Honduran Government as its representative on the Inter-American Commission of Women.

Upon presenting his letters of credence to President Roosevelt, Dr. Cáceres said in part:

The Government of Honduras, desiring at all times to maintain and strengthen its international relations and always eager to cooperate in promoting the progress of nations and orderly international life, feels and believes, as does Your Excellency's Government, that only the principles of law and justice can successfully guide and direct nations in their dealings "with and within a world of neighbors."

Their common belief in these ideals and in those of democracy, whose institutions the Government of Honduras maintains and defends, makes it easier for the United States and the people of my country to apply the positive policy of rapprochement, mutual respect, and reciprocal cooperation that Your Excellency has outlined so brilliantly and that the Government of Honduras has also fully adopted. My Government is in complete agreement with Your Excellency's Government in its efforts to make law the deciding and controlling factor in the relations between states, as the only means of preserving peace, safeguarding justice, and augmenting the moral and cultural patrimony of nations.

The fact that the two countries jointly share these principles, that they are geographically close, and that there is a growing commercial and cultural interchange between them clearly shows that, if

their aspirations and interests are rightly understood, the United States and Honduras are and ought to be good friends. No better basis could be found for the discharge of my mission, whose aim is to strengthen the bonds of good and loyal friendship existing between both countries and Governments.

In President Roosevelt's reply to the remarks of Dr. Cáceres, he said in part:

I note with pleasure, and heartily reciprocate, the expression of hope which you convey on behalf of His Excellency President Carías that the close ties of friendship which have come to be traditional between the peoples and governments of Honduras and the United States may be still further strengthened. As you so aptly remark, the geographical nearness of our two countries, their expanding commercial relations, their mutually beneficial cultural interchange and their common belief in those ideals of democracy which are the foundation of the institutions of Government of this hemisphere render it the more natural that they should continue to be the good friends and neighbors they have happily been in the past.

In the furtherance of these common aims, and in the development of new fields of economic, social and cultural cooperation between Honduras and the United States, you may rest assured, Mr. Minister, that I, personally, and the officials of my Government will at all times be prepared to assist and encourage you in the discharge of your important mission. I have no doubt that the several years of experience you have had in this country both as a member of the staff of the Honduran Legation and as your Government's Chargé d'Affaires will stand you in good stead during your service as Minister; and I know that the respect and friendship you have won for yourself in official and private circles in the United States will be of great value in the years to come.

Dr. Cáceres is also the representative of Honduras on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



The United States Social Service Mission to Venezuela

ARÍSTIDES A. MOLL, PH. D.

Secretary, Pan American Sanitary Bureau

THE ORGANIZATION of the American-Venezuelan Social Service Mission had its origin in a wish expressed by President E. López Contreras to Mrs. A. C. González, wife of the then Minister to Venezuela from the United States, and to Father J. M. Drought, Vicar-General of the Maryknoll Fathers, New York. The President's idea was to have a group of American experts in various fields of social service go to Caracas to meet with a similar Venezuelan group in order to discuss mutual experiences and, after considering local conditions and studying work already in progress, suggest practical means of developing a gradual program of social welfare activities. The expenses of the trip were defrayed by public-spirited citizens of the United States as an evidence of friendship toward the Government and people of Venezuela. While in Caracas the members of the mission were guests of the Venezuelan Government.

As may be seen from the above, the enterprise was in all its characteristics a cooperative good will project, and in more than one sense a true pioneer experiment, this being probably the first mission of its type in the history of the American Republics. All 22 members volunteered their services as experts in such different subjects as child welfare, community organization, education, housing, hospitalization, labor problems, nursing, public health, social insurance, social legislation, and social service.

In addition to Reverend John F. O'Hara, C. S. C., President of Notre Dame, who headed the Delegation, and Father Drought, who acted as executive organizer and secretary, the personnel of the Mission included Dr. C. W. Ackerman, Dean of the Graduate School of Journalism, Columbia University; Reverend Dr. J. P. Boland, Chairman of the New York State Labor Relations Board; Miss Josephine V. D. Brownson, President of the Catholic Instruction League of Detroit; Dr. Howard Carroll of the Social Service School of Washington, D. C.; Mr. Wm. E. Cotter, Chairman of the Industrial Committee of the Greater New York Fund; Reverend Dr. Wm. T. Cunningham, Professor of Education, Notre Dame University; Very Reverend Dr. J. J. Dillon, President of Providence College; Dr. Francis E. Fronczak, Health Commissioner of Buffalo, New York; Reverend Dr. R. I. Gannon, President of Fordham University; Mrs. A. C. González, lawyer; Miss Tess M. Gorka, youth organizer; Mr. J. C. Hége-man, housing expert; Reverend Dr. G. W. Johnson, head of the Department of Education, Catholic University; Prof. J. E. McCarthy, Dean, College of Commerce, Notre Dame University; Dr. Aristides A. Moll, Secretary, Pan American Sanitary Bureau; Mr. Val Nolan, U. S. District Attorney for the Southern District of Indiana; Miss Regina J. O'Connell, Director of Social Service, Catholic Youth Organizations, Chicago; Reverend

Dr. Edgar Schmiedler, Rural Social Service Expert; and Right Reverend J. P. Treacy, of the Cleveland Welfare Committee. Two members of the Mission, Surgeon General Thomas Parran and Major General Hugh Drum, U. S. A., were unable at the last moment to make the trip.

While in Caracas the Commission held daily round table meetings with leaders in health education and social welfare. In order to make the deliberations as all-embracing and thorough as possible, the Ministries of the Treasury, Agriculture, War and Navy, Labor, Education, and Public Health, because of their direct interest in Social Welfare work, each appointed a committee to represent it on the General Commission. The Venezuelan group included experts of the highest type, chosen for their special qualifications. Dr. C. Díez del Ciervo, Director of Social Welfare in the Ministry of Public Health, was designated as Chairman of the Commission, and Dr. Rafael Vegas Sánchez acted as Secretary General. Through the interest of the Minister, Dr. Julio García Álvarez, the Ministry of Public Health assumed responsibility for the enterprise and showed constant concern for the results.

Although the stay in Venezuela was limited to eight days (June 22-29), some members of the mission had been busy for several months ahead gathering material, and others had quite detailed information on conditions. All meetings were held in the newly finished Ministry of Education building. A very intensive program was arranged for the period spent in Caracas, including morning and afternoon sessions and visits to prominent institutions, in addition to private interviews with representative people. Ideas were frankly exchanged as to technique and social service methods used in both gov-

ernmental and private agencies in the United States, and their possible application to Venezuela. While actual experiences were naturally discussed and practical considerations were duly emphasized, an attempt was constantly made to lay down general principles, since such factors as geographical location, climate and race convert each country into a unique unit.

The arrangements included meetings of separate groups in the morning and joint afternoon sessions of all groups. At the former, Group A (health) considered: Extension of public health to small communities; maternal and child welfare in their different aspects; nurses and other hospital personnel; social diseases; Group B (welfare): Social ideals as the objective of a practical government; the extension of private property and its relation to social security; crime and punishment; juvenile courts; social organization and its integration with the government; youth organizations; Group C (education): Education in its relation to administrative science; normal courses; scholarships; organization of schools for social service; collaboration of foreign capital in the national development; Group D (social service): Financing social service outside the government; immigration in its relation to social economy; social service in industry; women in industry; social service in the Army. Subjects of a more general type dealt with in the afternoon sessions were: Social consequences of disease; housing and social service; social benefits of health; elementary courses in social service, with emphasis on economical and practical preparation; social importance of religious instruction, its philosophical and moral aspects; social service in agriculture; unionism; capitalism and collaboration of foreign capital in national development; taxation and tariffs; social security; the Government as an instrument of social order; contribution of



Courtesy of A. A. Moll

THE MEMBERS OF THE SOCIAL SERVICE COMMISSION WITH THE PRESIDENT OF VENEZUELA AND MADAME LÓPEZ CONTRERAS

the press to social service; and organization of a community fund for social service.

On account of the round-table plan of the discussions, the frank, informal way in which they were conducted, the novelty of the experiment and perhaps uncertainty as to actual accomplishments, it was considered better to limit all newspaper reports to mere daily résumés of the subjects treated. The results, however, were such as to justify release at a later date of the complete papers and other material.

On completion of the whole series of conferences, the preliminary conclusions of the entire Commission were submitted to a committee of Cabinet members and a more detailed report was forwarded afterwards.

During the entire stay of the group the President showed his personal and constant interest in the deliberations. A most

elaborate program of entertainment was arranged for the members who, at the direct invitation of the President, were invited to attend ceremonies held at Carabobo Park on June 26, this being the first year when this national holiday was celebrated as Army Day. Other excursions included a visit to Maracay, where the members of the Commission were guests at dinners given by the President and the Minister of Education.

Because of various considerations, the public health part of the program was undoubtedly the one receiving most attention. Surgeon General Parran sent a message, which was received with much applause, to this effect: "It is scarcely necessary to place on record my sincere belief in Pan American cooperation, especially in the public health field, where it has already given such tangible and even splendid results. While methods must per-

force vary according to conditions, certain basic principles apply with equal force everywhere. The need of health, not for some of the people but for all the people, at all times, is one of them. No country can progress without adherence to this wise rule. Public health is a force which can and must be used to improve the conditions of all our peoples. Through a series of auspicious developments the Land of the Liberator is well prepared to take a leading position in this momentous movement. I hope that this chance will be seized and developed to its fullest extent. We have within our reach the possibility of making this a better world for ourselves and our children. Let us not waste this opportunity, which is also our responsibility."

The Committee on Public Health of the American group (Dr. A. A. Moll and Dr. F. E. Fronczak, members) concluded as follows their final report to the Commission:

"Through a number of fortunate circumstances, including a period of unprecedented prosperity and the action of far-seeing statesmen, and also by attracting to the country or training abroad a competent personnel, Venezuela has made in the last two or three years health advances probably unsurpassed, if equalled, by any country anywhere.

"The Venezuelan authorities are entitled to the highest praise for the attention and care they have given to their problems and their solution, as shown by the series of measures already in force or planned for the future.

"Health progress made so far is generally satisfactory and probably as intensive as could be reasonably expected, especially as regards cities. In fact, an unavoidable conclusion is forced upon any student of the subject, that city and rural health are on two quite different planes; the former fairly well attended to and the latter

hardly taken care of. Ways should therefore be constantly sought in order to see whether it would be possible to maintain the level reached and also to accelerate its extension to other parts of the country, particularly rural districts, without impairing its quality and efficiency. However, because of an insufficient number of trained personnel, the program cannot be forced too rapidly. The old Roman saying, *festina lente*, holds especially true in this instance.

"Long range public health programs of the type represented by the Three-Year Plan are to be commended, since they enable responsible officials to draw up their measures far in advance and thus obtain higher efficiency.

"The public health budget for the current fiscal year amounts to more than 18,000,000 bolívars (about \$6,000,000). This averages \$1.75 per capita, which is substantially above the standard recommended by Pan American Sanitary Conferences. An effort should always be made to differentiate funds assigned to permanent or durable improvements, such as hospitals, waterworks, drainage works, etc., which represent health capital or investments, and funds devoted to actual health work, in the form of direct control and prevention of disease.

"The unfailing fund of courtesy, cooperation and knowledge contributed by the Venezuelan members of the Sub-committee on Health cannot be too highly praised or emphasized."

Among the institutions visited with special attention in Caracas and vicinity, in addition to the many notable historical places in which Bolívar's native land is so outstandingly rich, were new schools, vacation camps, housing projects, the Instituto Pedagógico, the Maternity Hospital, the tuberculosis sanatoria and various dispensaries, the Children's Hospital,

the Mental Disease Hospital—all of which have much to praise, since they have been completed recently and are up-to-date institutions. The community restaurants, opened under the auspices of the Health Department in Caracas and La Guaira, endeavor to put within the reach of the people a proper, scientific diet. Visits were also made to the malaria work in Puerto Cabello, the leper settlement at Cabo Blanco, and finally, various well-equipped sanitary units of the group which is gradually weaving a network of effec-

tive protection against disease throughout the national territory.

For the far-reaching and well-meaning plans of the Government of Venezuela, to offer the people an expanding public health and medical service in conformity with true social service ideals, no one can have anything but admiration and encomium. If the Mission has been able to contribute in even a very small measure to furthering this noble and humane purpose, it feels that its friendly effort and purpose will have been only too amply rewarded.

United States Trade with Latin America in the Fiscal Year 1938-39

JULIAN G. ZIER

Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union

ACCORDING to figures compiled by the Division of Foreign Trade Statistics, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce, the total United States imports from and exports to all nations, at the close of the fiscal year ended June 30, 1939, amounted to \$2,094,036,000 and \$2,919,079,000, respectively. Corresponding figures for the preceding fiscal year were: Imports, \$2,361,257,000, and exports, \$3,393,192,000.

Of total imports, the 20 Latin American republics supplied commodities to the value of \$466,433,000 in the fiscal year 1938-39, as compared with \$508,294,000 in the preceding fiscal year, a decline of 8.2 percent. Of total exports, the Latin

American republics received commodities valued at \$469,013,000 in 1938-39, as against \$566,745,000 in 1937-38, a loss of 17.2 percent. There was a decline of 13 percent in United States total trade with Latin America in the fiscal year 1938-39, the combined imports and exports for this period aggregating \$935,446,000, as against \$1,075,039,000 in the fiscal year 1937-38.

Imports from the northern group of countries, i. e., the countries from Panama north, amounted to \$191,121,000 in the fiscal year 1938-39, as compared with \$202,844,000 in the preceding fiscal year, a loss of 5.8 percent. United States purchases from the South American republics reached a value of \$275,312,000 in the fiscal year 1938-39, a loss of 9.9 percent

as compared with the corresponding figure (\$305,450,000) for the previous fiscal period.

United States exports to the republics of North America during 1938-39 totaled \$188,516,000, as against \$229,762,000 in the preceding fiscal year, a loss of 18 percent. Sales to the South American republics also decreased (16.8 percent) in the

fiscal year 1938-39 as compared with the corresponding sales in the preceding fiscal period, the respective figures being \$280,497,000 and \$336,983,000.

A comparison of trade by countries during the past fiscal year with that of the preceding 12 months shows percentage increases in United States imports from eleven of the Latin American republics,

United States Imports from Latin America—12 Months Ended June

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country of origin	1938	1939	Percent change in 1939
Mexico.....	52, 417	51, 387	- 2. 0
Guatemala.....	8, 783	10, 677	+21. 6
El Salvador.....	6, 331	7, 236	+14. 3
Honduras.....	5, 084	6, 681	+31. 4
Nicaragua.....	2, 581	3, 055	+18. 4
Costa Rica.....	4, 391	3, 715	-15. 4
Panama.....	4, 193	3, 084	-26. 4
Cuba.....	110, 451	96, 345	-12. 8
Dominican Republic.....	5, 424	6, 054	+11. 6
Haiti.....	3, 189	2, 887	-9. 5
North American Republics.....	202, 844	191, 121	-5. 8
Argentina.....	73, 284	50, 696	-30. 8
Bolivia ¹	1, 049	1, 364	+30. 0
Brazil.....	105, 964	100, 644	-5. 0
Chile.....	32, 968	27, 292	-17. 2
Colombia.....	48, 247	49, 152	+1. 9
Ecuador.....	3, 212	3, 236	+0. 7
Paraguay ¹	976	1, 519	+55. 6
Peru.....	13, 299	13, 540	+1. 8
Uruguay.....	4, 700	6, 534	+39. 0
Venezuela.....	21, 751	21, 335	-1. 9
South American Republics.....	305, 450	275, 312	-9. 9
Total Latin America.....	508, 294	466, 433	-8. 2

¹ United States statistics credit commodities in considerable quantities imported from and exported to Bolivia and Paraguay via ports situated in neighboring countries, not to the Republics of Bolivia and Paraguay, but to the countries in which the ports of entry or departure are located.

the lowest being 0.7 percent for Ecuador and the highest 55.6 percent for Paraguay. For the other republics, losses are recorded ranging from 1.9 percent for Venezuela to 30.8 percent for Argentina. Increases are registered in exports to five of the Latin American republics, from 4.8 percent for Guatemala to 45.6 percent for Costa Rica. Decreases ranged from 2 percent for Hon-

duras to 67.5 percent for Uruguay.

The accompanying tables show the trade of the United States with each of the republics of Latin America during the last two fiscal years. In addition to imports from and exports to each country, the statements show grand totals for the republics of North America, for the South American republics, and for all Latin America.

United States Exports to Latin America—12 Months Ended June

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country of destination	1938	1939	Percent change in 1939
Mexico.....	89, 947	67, 794	- 24. 6
Guatemala.....	7, 098	7, 437	+ 4. 8
El Salvador.....	3, 697	3, 618	- 2. 1
Honduras.....	6, 061	5, 942	- 2. 0
Nicaragua.....	2, 994	3, 609	+20. 5
Costa Rica.....	4, 810	7, 005	+45. 6
Panama.....	17, 596	10, 511	-40. 3
Cuba.....	87, 702	72, 342	-17. 5
Dominican Republic.....	6, 254	5, 854	- 6. 4
Haiti.....	3, 603	4, 404	+22. 2
North American Republics.....	229, 762	188, 516	-18. 0
Argentina.....	103, 864	64, 816	-37. 6
Bolivia ¹	6, 109	5, 311	-13. 1
Brazil.....	70, 366	64, 669	- 8. 1
Chile.....	26, 095	23, 259	-10. 9
Colombia.....	39, 611	46, 329	+17. 0
Ecuador.....	4, 954	3, 582	-27. 7
Paraguay ¹	740	700	- 5. 4
Peru.....	19, 776	16, 268	-17. 7
Uruguay.....	10, 856	3, 532	-67. 5
Venezuela.....	54, 612	52, 031	- 4. 7
South American Republics.....	336, 983	280, 497	-16. 8
Total Latin America.....	566, 745	469, 013	-17. 2

¹ See note 1, page 526.



Courtesy of Rafael de la Colina

MEXICAN PAVILION, NEW YORK WORLD'S FAIR
The pavilion faces the Court of Peace.



Courtesy of Rafael de la Colina

TWO HALLS IN THE MEXICAN PAVILION

Mexico has emphasized her many tourist attractions: scenery, archeological remains, colonial buildings and Indian customs. Original archeological objects and reproductions of others, such as the Aztec Calendar Stone, attract many visitors.

Meeting of Treasury Representatives of the American Republics

IN accordance with a resolution of the Eighth International Conference of American States held at Lima last December and action taken by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at its session of June 14, 1939, the First Meeting of Treasury Representatives of the American Republics will convene at Guatemala City on November 13, 1939. The following program was formulated by the Government of Guatemala:

Preliminary Section

This meeting, which will bring together for the first time treasury representatives, has as its object an exchange of impressions and viewpoints on the various economic problems of the Continent, in addition to making known the experience gained during the decade from 1929 to 1939 in the field of treasury activities by each country represented, particularly as regards monetary, foreign exchange, and banking matters.

The purpose of the conversations will be to define the possibility of a closer cooperation between the American Republics, and to indicate the topics to be considered in succeeding conferences.

The special subjects to be examined are as follows:

Section I

MONETARY POLICY

- I. Experiences regarding the monetary standard and its influence on the national and international economy of the American countries.
- II. Possibility of currency stabilization, on a gold standard, as support for an inter-American economic policy.

Section II

FOREIGN EXCHANGE POLICY

- III. Methods of putting into effect the principles, declarations, and recommendations adopted by the Montevideo, Buenos Aires, and Lima Conferences on the elimination of restrictions and limitations imposed on inter-American trade.

Section III

BANKING POLICY

- IV. Policy of the central banks and their relations to the State.
- V. Desirability of a closer cooperation and contact between central banks, both in financial matters and in the furnishing of information on the economic, commercial, and monetary situation, and on bills, laws, decrees, and regulations affecting imports, exports, and the movement of capital.
- VI. Increase and extension of credit, in its different aspects.



First Pan American Low-cost Housing Congress

JOSÉ MARÍA CANTILLO

Minister of Foreign Affairs and Worship, Argentina

IN all countries low-cost housing is a serious and important government problem, whose solution requires the cooperation of finance and economics, town planning and architecture, hygiene and legislation, education and social welfare activities.

It is logical, therefore, that governments, before starting or continuing projects on a national scale, should want to obtain a thorough knowledge of what is being done by other countries in this field, in order to profit as much as possible by the experience of others, and that they should try to keep in touch with each other, through their experts on the subject, in order to work out together the most suitable general formulas on which to base a sound national policy of low-cost housing. Both these objectives may be attained by means of international gatherings.

Geographical, social, and economic reasons lead us to believe that though the problem of low-cost housing is universal, it has certain common characteristics in the American countries; hence it should be especially profitable for the governments of this continent to meet in an inter-American conference dealing with those objectives.

The Argentine Government, acting upon this belief, has called the First Pan American Low-cost Housing Congress, which will be held at Buenos Aires from October

Radio address delivered by Dr. José María Cantillo, Minister of Foreign Affairs and Worship, Argentina, on July 12, 1939. The program for the Congress was published in the BULLETIN for May 1939.

2 to 7, 1939. At the Seventh International Conference of American States, which met at Montevideo at the end of 1933, Dr. Juan F. Cafferata, a member of the Argentine delegation and a student of sociology and particularly of low-cost housing, submitted a proposal, which the Conference approved, that a congress of the American countries be held to consider for the first time on this continent the social, health and economic-financial aspects of the low-cost housing problem. The Conference approved the proposal and the Governing Board of the Pan American Union asked the Argentine Government if it would be willing to hold such a congress at Buenos Aires, to consider a program drafted by the Union. The Government answered in the affirmative and the present administration takes pleasure in convening the congress.

First of all, an organizing committee for the congress was appointed, with Dr. Cafferata as chairman. The committee has already done important work, in collaboration with this Ministry.

All the American Governments have been cordially invited to send representatives. In addition to the national delegations of the American Governments, who will be the only voting members of the Congress, provision has been made for having papers submitted by representatives of those states or provinces, municipalities, government departments, and public organizations interested in the

problem in all American countries, who wish to attend the Congress. Such representatives may also collaborate with the commissions as non-voting members. In this way, although only national governments (on a strictly equal footing) will be entitled to adopt resolutions, it will be possible to count on the collaboration of all American organizations in the study of a problem whose solution calls for the widest possible cooperation of minds and goodwill. Furthermore, the Pan American Union, the League of Nations, the International Labor Office, the International Housing and Town Planning Federation of Brussels and the Zurich International Congress of Modern Architecture have been invited to send qualified experts to inform the Congress of the experience of certain countries whose practical achievements in this field are outstanding, as well as to give authoritative technical advice. Thus an attempt has been made to have continental action adequately linked with world information.

While the Congress is in session, a Pan American exhibition of building materials suitable for low-cost housing will be held in Buenos Aires, to remain open until November 2. Not only the countries represented at the Congress but also European nations specializing in the manufacture of such materials will take part. During the same month there will also be an exhibition of recent books on housing and related subjects published in America or by the European organizations men-

tioned above. Motion pictures, American and otherwise, will also be featured, to show low-cost housing achievements throughout the world.

To facilitate the work of the Congress, the Argentine organizing committee has appointed as many subcommittees for study as there will be committees in the Congress; these subcommittees will classify and coordinate the papers received from both national and foreign sources, according to subject matter.

These preparatory labors, representing a decided effort to assure the success of the Congress, have been performed in no perfunctory manner. They have been carried out with a deep sense of human responsibility, a sincere desire for collective improvement. And the letter of the recommendations adopted by the Congress will, I am sure, be carried out not only in Argentina but in all America in a spirit of readiness to begin work, or to continue projects already started, on the basis of a well-considered program embodying the results of experience and study.

During my long stay in Europe I have observed at close range the striking yet happy contrast in many countries between new low-cost housing constructed under government auspices and the buildings inherited from former generations for human shelter. For my part I have joined heart and soul in this crusade of social rehabilitation in which the Argentine Government hopes to have the support of the sister countries of America.

The Sucre Archives

VICENTE LECUNA

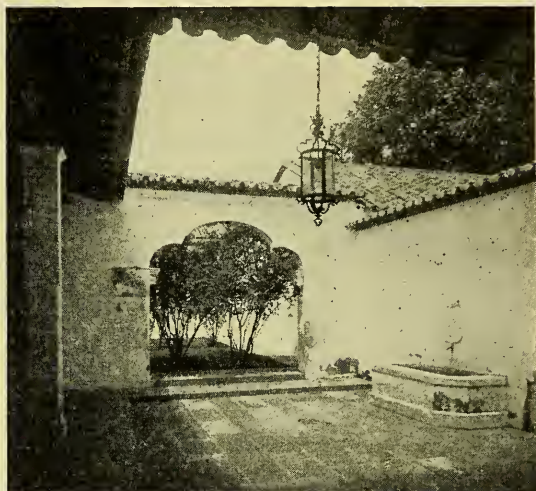
Curator, The Birthplace of the Liberator, Caracas

THE ARCHIVES of the Founding Fathers of Venezuela have had a varied history. The country has acquired at different periods the papers of Simón Bolívar, the Liberator, which were scattered after his death; these are preserved almost in their entirety in his birthplace at Caracas. The Academy of History guards those of Miranda, Salom, and Soublette. In the June 1933 issue, the *BULLETIN* published an account of the wanderings of the Miranda archives, and some excerpts from their entertaining pages. There is no information as to the fate of the papers belonging to Urdaneta, Mariño, Bermúdez, or Páez.

Of the leaders in the struggle for the independence of South America, General Antonio José de Sucre, a native of Cumaná, Venezuela, was outstanding for his military strategy, diplomacy, personal integrity and freedom from rancor or selfish ambition, and after Spain had recognized the new status of her former colonies, became the first President of Bolivia.

The Sucre archives, which passed from his widow's heirs to the Flores family of Ecuador, have not been kept intact. Some of them were acquired by the Hon. Hiram Bingham, formerly a member of the United States Senate, who kept them on deposit for many years at Yale University. Some time ago the collection was sold to the Government of Venezuela, and now it too reposes in the birthplace of the Liberator.

The Sucre collection consists of 2,128 personal and official letters from leading men in almost all the Republics of South

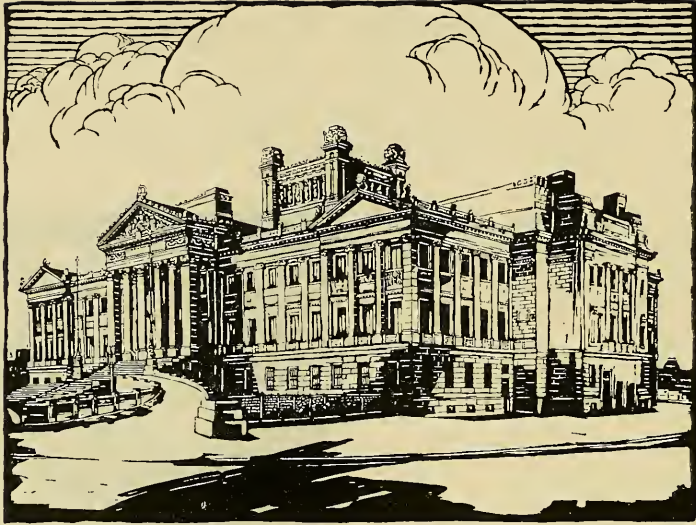


PATIO IN THE HOUSE OF BOLÍVAR

America, from General San Martín and Dean Funes of Argentina, to the celebrated Ecuadorean poet José Joaquín Olmedo and General Santander, the national hero of Colombia. Among the few letters from the Liberator are four unpublished notes.

These documents as a whole are most valuable for any study of the campaigns of southern Greater Colombia, Peru, and Bolivia, as well as for the political history of the last two countries named, where General Sucre, both before and after receiving the title of Marshal of Ayacucho, was in supreme command.

The Government of Venezuela also has in the birthplace of Bolívar other smaller portions of the Sucre archives, and has made provision for preserving them with the archives of the Liberator.



THE CAPITOL, MONTEVIDEO, URUGUAY

PAN AMERICAN *Progress*

Message of the President of Uruguay

General Alfredo Baldomir, in presenting his first annual message to the Uruguayan Assembly on March 15, 1939, stated that the country was enjoying a period of calm politically, and that the economic and financial situation was relatively favorable, in spite of repercussions of disturbed conditions in other parts of the world. Details of the administration were provided in the reports submitted by his Cabinet members.

Dr. Alberto Guani, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, visited Buenos Aires last year at the invitation of the Argentine Government. Besides being an expression of the close bonds between the two countries, the visit had concrete results in a

convention on the exchange of teachers, writers, artists, and university students, a convention on commercial aviation, and the solving of the question of establishing ferry and air service for passengers, mail, and freight between the ports of Buenos Aires and Colonia.

The protocol signed between Uruguay and Argentina on January 13, 1938, settled satisfactorily the controversy between the two countries with respect to jurisdiction over certain islands on the Uruguay River and established a procedure for the friendly settlement of similar cases. It also provided for a hydrographic survey of the river and the utilization of its hydraulic power. The two governments have already appointed the commissions which are to take charge of this work.

In view of the situation created in part

by the racial policy instituted by some European States, Uruguay has adopted a restrictive immigration policy and informed its consulates abroad that only career men may issue permits to travel to Uruguay, and that no visas should be issued to immigrants, tourists, or others, without the previous authorization of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Dr. César Charlone, Minister of Finance, informed the Assembly that the state of the public finances was sound. The 1938 fiscal year, like the previous three years, showed a surplus of revenues over expenditures, estimated at 1,435,645 pesos, despite the fact that heavy extraordinary expenses were met with ordinary revenues. Government obligations have been met punctually. The Government's credit at home and abroad has been strengthened greatly through the readjustment of the internal and external debt. The conversion of the national internal debt covered bonds of a total face value of 155,838,531 pesos

with interest at the rate of 6, 6.5, and 7 percent per annum, which now has been reduced to 5 percent. The foreign municipal dollar debt, amounting to \$4,863,500, has been nationalized, interest and amortization rates being reduced. The conversion and readjustment of the foreign national debt covered bonds in the face value of \$57,811,000 and 19,626,677 pounds sterling.

With reference to the plan for the conversion and readjustment of the public debt the Minister said: "All this helps to strengthen the foreign credit of the country. The situation that existed heretofore could not be sustained any longer and now we can say that we have placed on a sound basis all our internal and external bond issues and that we have faithfully complied with the new engagements that we have entered into in accordance with our real capacity to pay." The report made the following comparisons between foreign trade in 1938 and 1937:

Years	Imports (pesos)	Exports (pesos)	Favorable Balance (pesos)
1937.....	80, 394, 105	98, 777, 227	18, 383, 122
1938.....	74, 394, 730	96, 355, 248	21, 960, 518

The public works program, which during 1937 was given a decided impetus through a law issued December 31, 1936, providing funds for this purpose, was continued during 1938. Considerable progress was made in the construction of roads, sewerage systems and waterworks for cities and towns in the interior, low cost housing for workers, port and river works, and the railway from Sarandí del Yí to the north. The State Railways showed a marked increase in the number of passengers and volume of freight carried.

Message of the President of Costa Rica

President León Cortés delivered his annual message to Congress on May 1, 1939, the beginning of the fourth and last year of his administration.

After expressing his satisfaction at the continued successful operation of democratic principles and institutions in the country, he recommended the revision of two important laws, on the press and elections, respectively.

In discussing foreign affairs, President Cortés spoke especially of the boundary treaty signed with Panama last September but not ratified by either country. "We are not going to deny the patent fact," he said, "that our boundaries were fixed by an arbitral award, but another fact no less evident is that those boundaries have not been accepted, and as the case is not unique in history, to take steps to come to an agreement is no affront to national dignity."

The population of the Republic, as estimated by the Department of the Interior, was 623,414, an increase of 16,833.

Revenues for the year totaled 37,491,407 colones, an increase of more than 5,750,000

colones over estimated receipts. This sum was 613,736 colones less than revenues for 1937, a decrease due to suspension of coffee export and cattle import taxes. The total expenditures, including 5,487,635 colones representing interest on the foreign debt, were 36,337,010 colones. President Cortés emphasized the fact that of the total expenditures 30 percent was allotted to the Ministry of Promotion, and 14 percent to that of Public Education. Bonds of the various issues of the foreign debt were purchased, representing a benefit to the country of 5,542,922 colones. The national debt had decreased over 12,500,000 colones between April 1936 and December 1938, as is shown by the following table:

	April 1936	December 1938	Decrease
	<i>Colones</i>	<i>Colones</i>	<i>Colones</i>
Foreign Debt ¹	113, 207, 238. 68	106, 932, 110. 16	6, 275, 128. 52
Internal Debt.....	38, 023, 718. 38	31, 707, 601. 44	6, 316, 116. 94
	151, 230, 957. 06	138, 639, 711. 60	12, 591, 245. 46

¹ In converting the foreign debt into colones, the rate of exchange used was 5.62 colones per dollar and 26.50 per pound sterling.

Imports for the year amounted to 12,620,721 colones giving an unfavorable trade balance of 2,475,107 colones. This fact, however, did not affect foreign exchange because of invisible imports of cash, chiefly due to expenditures of the company developing its Pacific coast banana concession.

As the President said above, slightly more than 14 percent of national expenditures (5,104,946 colones) was devoted to public education, excluding the appropriation for school buildings in the budget of the Department of Promotion. To unify and improve education throughout the country, all primary school teachers must be graduates of the Normal School of Costa Rica, which henceforth is the only

institution empowered to issue the necessary certificates.

Among the measures of social import mentioned by President Cortés were control of food prices, encouragement of production by rural credit banks, and progress on low-cost housing projects. He announced that the birth rate had risen, the death rate fallen, and child welfare work increased. At present 12 sanitary units are in operation in as many towns and cities, and serve 33 percent of the population; nine more are being established in or planned for other parts of the country. These units include in their services prenatal care, attention to infants and school children, vaccination, dental care, antivenereal campaigns, labora-

tory work, and clinical and hospital care.

In discussing public works, President Cortés expressed his conviction that not a balanced budget but aid to progress in return for taxes was the real criterion of a good government, especially in a country where the two sources of wealth, agriculture and industry, were still in an early stage of development.

The Pacific Electric Railway, which is government-owned, has not only been a source of revenue (its net profit for 1938 was 1,615,310 colones) but has also helped develop the regions through which it passes.

Highways, school buildings, and the supplying of potable water were the most important phases of public works carried on during the past year, at a cost of 6,912,050 colones, divided as follows: highways, 3,099,343; schools, 1,242,278; water, 482,222; and miscellaneous, 2,088,207.

The agricultural resettlement program carried on with government aid has been most successful. The assets of the settlers increased by 158,390 colones in 1938.

The President concluded his message by referring to the Pacific Coast activities of the Banana Company, with which a contract was signed in 1938 and approved by Congress. A hitherto unproductive and unpopulated region, thanks to that contract, is now being developed to the benefit of both the nation and the company. At the time of the message, the company had expended 2,527,725 colones in clearing land, constructing roads and railways, building a hospital, and carrying on topographic studies.

Message of the President of Guatemala

The message delivered to the National Legislative Assembly by the President of Guatemala, General Jorge Ubico, on

March 1, 1939, summarizes the activities of the Executive departments during the fiscal year 1937-38. With reference to education the message states that particular attention was paid to the teaching of agriculture and handicraft in the rural schools and to the teaching of Spanish to Indian school children. In the Government and private schools 53,193 pupils were taught to read and write during the year. The corresponding figures for army barracks and jails were 2,405 and 752, respectively.

The relations between Guatemala and the other Central American Republics and Panama have been strengthened by the exchange of ratifications of the boundary treaty between Guatemala and El Salvador, the First Philatelic Exposition of Central America and Panama, and a regional radio conference¹ last November, as well as by the goodwill flight of ten units of the Guatemalan air force through Central America, Panama, and the Canal Zone. The Government has published a white paper on the 80-year-old controversy with the United Kingdom with regard to British Honduras.

Speaking of financial conditions, the President said that the currency in circulation during 1938 amounted to 16,171,420 quetzales, an increase of 3.20 percent over 1937. The gold reserve in the Central Bank amounted to 72.16 percent of the banknotes in circulation, as compared with 68.96 percent in 1937. The law requires a gold reserve of only 40 percent of the note issue.

Government revenues during the fiscal year amounted to 12,497,464 quetzales, an increase of 892,049 quetzales over 1936-37. Expenditures amounted to 10,979,063 quetzales, leaving a surplus of 1,518,401 quetzales.

The public debt, which on December 31,

¹See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, April 1939.

1938 amounted to 9,223,687 quetzales and 1,520,432 pounds sterling, shows a reduction of 1,806,013 quetzales as compared with December 31, 1937. Most of the reduction represents a payment to the Bank of London and South America, Ltd. on a balance of 2,417,308 quetzales due on a loan of 3,000,000 quetzales contracted in April 1931.

Imports during 1938 amounted to 16,761,388 quetzales and exports to 16,336,263 quetzales, showing an increase of 18,481 quetzales and 227,653 quetzales, respectively, over 1937.

A census taken in February 1938 shows that Guatemala City has an urban population of 166,456 inhabitants. The population of the country was estimated to be 3,044,490 inhabitants on December 31, 1938. Plans are being made to take a general census during 1940.

During the year there were constructed 150 miles of new roads and 36 bridges. Guatemala has a network of roads with a total length of 3,626 miles.

First Pan American Conference on Sanitary Aviation

The First Pan American Conference on Sanitary Aviation met at Montevideo, Uruguay, from February 2-9, 1939, with delegates from twelve of the twenty-one American Republics in attendance: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, El Salvador, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, United States, and Uruguay. The Conference adopted 30 resolutions dealing with air ambulance services, the medical problems of flying personnel, and the protection of public health in so far as it may be affected by aircraft as carriers of contagious diseases. With respect to this last topic the Conference urged that the American countries which have not yet ratified the Inter-

national Sanitary Convention for Aerial Navigation, signed at The Hague in 1933, do so as soon as possible.

Brazilian Reinsurance Institute established

The Brazilian Reinsurance Institute, a legal entity in charge of all underwriting in Brazil, was established by a decree-law of April 3, 1939. Its capital of 30,000 contos will be divided into 60,000 shares of 500 milreis each; 70 percent of the stock will be taken by social welfare institutions established by federal law, and the remaining 30 percent by insurance companies operating now or in the future in Brazil. The latter shares cannot be used as collateral in any transaction.

All insurance issued by each company, in excess of a certain limit to be fixed by the Institute, must be reinsured in the Institute, which is empowered to reinsure abroad as well as in the companies themselves.

Beginning July 1, 1940, all commercial and industrial organizations whose real or personal property amounts to 500 contos or more must take out fire and transportation insurance in Brazil.

The Institute will be administered by a chairman and a council of six members. The chairman and three members are Presidential appointees, and the other three are named by societies holding shares in the Institute. Dr. João Carlos Vital, an official in the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, has been appointed first chairman.

Waterpower development in Rio Grande do Sul

On April 13, 1939, mayors of cities in the State of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil, met in Porto Alegre under the chairmanship of the

State Secretary of Public Works, Dr. Walter Jobin, to discuss waterpower development in the state.

A long-term project was agreed upon that included the establishment of power plants on the Jacuhy and Santa Maria Rivers and port works at Porto Alegre. While it will be some time before results are apparent, eventually all cities throughout the state will be adequately supplied with electricity.

The expenses incidental to carrying out the plan will be met by the State; after the project has paid for itself, each town will be free to make its own power charges.

The first step will be the erection of a 12,000 h. p. plant on the Jacuhy River, at a cost of 20,000 contos; already nearly 100 contos have been spent in preliminary studies.

Tenth anniversary of Pan American-Grace Airways service

Letters of greeting from President Roosevelt to President Santos of Colombia, President Mosquera of Ecuador, President Benavides of Peru, and President Aguirre Cerda of Chile were transported by Pan American-Grace Airways (Panagra) on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the establishment of direct air-mail and transport service between the United States and the West Coast of South America. Delivered by Panagra in approximately one-half the time necessary when it first established this service 1929, the letters were presented on May 18 by the respective diplomatic representatives of the United States in each of the four capitals, accompanied by a representative or pilot of the line.

After extending his personal good wishes and greetings President Roosevelt, according to a release from the Department of State, recalled the tremendous development during the past 10 years in the

speed, reliability, and carrying capacity of commercial aircraft and predicted that the progress of the next 10 years will witness at least as great an advance. The President expressed the belief that in the measure in which we can the more readily communicate with each other, we can the more thoroughly and effectively cooperate in every field of activity.

In 1929 the service by Pan American Airways from Miami to Panama and by Pan American-Grace Airways from Panama south operated on a schedule of 3 days to Panama, 4 days to Buenaventura (Colombia), 5 days to Guayaquil (Ecuador), 6 days to Lima (Peru), and 8 days to Santiago (Chile). Today it takes 1 day from New York to Panama, 2 days to Guayaquil, 2½ days to Lima, and 3½ days to Santiago. The initial equipment in 1929 consisted of small single-motor planes and amphibians, which quickly gave way to Ford transports. These in turn were replaced by 15-passenger Douglas DC-2 land transports, which have since been supplemented by DC-3's carrying 21 passengers.

Colombian Immigration and Colonization Committee

A Presidential decree of March 14, 1939, created the Immigration and Colonization Committee, composed of two representatives each of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of National Economy, and one representative each of the Ministry of the Interior, the Agricultural Mortgage Bank, and the Agrarian, Industrial, and Mining Credit Bank.

The duties of the Committee, whose chairman is the Minister of Foreign Affairs or his appointee, are as follows: to review all legislation in force dealing with immigration and colonization, and to propose any modifications necessary; to prepare

bills on the subject to be submitted to the next Congress; to study and draft an immigration and colonization plan that will enable the country to take advantage of present conditions to attract European emigrants; to investigate the possibilities of public lands for colonization by immigrants; to study the means of financing the transportation and establishment of immigrants, individually or in groups; to prepare reports on the ability of the country to assimilate immigrants, with attention to occupation, qualifications, and personal circumstances, in compliance with the resolution on this subject approved by the Lima Conference; and to study the possibility of collaboration by official and private enterprise.

The committee held its first meeting on March 18, and established five sections to carry out the duties entrusted to it, as follows: sociological study of immigration; outline of Colombian legislation on immigration and colonization from the colonial era to the present; a census of trades, occupations, and professions; a census of public lands; and a census of the demand for immigrants. The last section will study the cultural, industrial, commercial, and agricultural fields where individual immigrants may be placed, and also the possibilities for group immigration in agricultural settlements and for trained industrial workers.

Population of Buenos Aires

The population of Greater Buenos Aires as of January 1, 1939, has been estimated to be 3,498,000; this gives the city eighth place in the list of cities of the world.

The estimate, prepared by Rafael García Mata and published in the authoritative *Revista de Economía Argentina*, is based on the recent census of the Province of Buenos Aires and the census of the Federal District

taken in October 1936 and brought up to date by the Statistical Bureau of the City of Buenos Aires from the vital statistics records. The bureau estimated the population of the Federal District to be 2,470,000 on January 1, 1939.

Greater Buenos Aires covers 258 square miles and comprises the Federal District, or the city proper (74 square miles), and all or part of 11 suburbs (184 square miles). In the Americas it is surpassed in size only by New York (7,986,000 inhabitants, 1,355 square miles), and Chicago (4,365,000 inhabitants, 1,119 square miles).

Mexican censuses in 1939 and 1940

The Mexican Department of National Economy has announced that censuses of buildings and owners of farms, industrial and commercial establishments, and transportation enterprises will be taken on October 20, 1939, and general censuses of population, agriculture and livestock, ejidos, industry, commerce, and transportation on March 6, 1940. All inhabitants of the Republic must submit on special forms the data requested concerning themselves, their families, and their business interests, as well as give any other assistance required. Any one absent from his home for any reason on either of these days must leave the pertinent information for the census taker.

Municipal markets in Santiago, Chile

At the initiative of Sra. Graciela de Schnake, mayor of Santiago, Chile, the city has established municipal markets in several thickly-populated districts. The first was opened on February 19th and was thronged with housewives eager to purchase direct from small producers foodstuffs

at prices ranging from 30 to 50 percent lower than those charged by tradesmen at the Central Market. The venture proved so successful that within a month four markets were functioning in different sections of the city, some twice, others once a week.

Colombian National Cost of Living Commission

A Presidential decree of March 10, 1939 created the National Cost of Living Commission as a body advisory to the Ministry of National Economy. The commission, whose headquarters will be in Bogotá, is composed of one representative each of the Ministries of the Treasury, National Economy, and Labor, Health and social welfare; of the Accounting Office of the republic; a member each from the board of directors of the Bank of the Republic and the Agrarian Credit Bank; and the Agricultural Society of Colombia. The secretary of the National Economy Council will also serve as secretary to the commission.

The Ministry of National Economy is empowered by the decree to take such preliminary measures as may be necessary to prevent an undue rise in the cost of prime necessities.

University of Cuyo established in Argentina

A Presidential decree of March 21 created the National University of Cuyo, for which an appropriation of 180,000 pesos had already been made in the national budget.

The University, which will draw its student body from the Provinces of Mendoza, San Juan, and San Luis, will be established in the building formerly occupied by the Arístides Villanueva School, Mendoza, and ceded for the purpose by the Government of the Province of Mendoza.

Some of the departments of the university however, will be in other provinces.

The colleges constituting the university, and their location, are as follows: Colleges of Sciences: Industrial School (San Juan), School of Agriculture (Mendoza), School of Economics (Mendoza), Secondary, Business, and Normal Schools (San Juan); College of Philosophy and Liberal Arts (Mendoza); Academy of Fine Arts (Mendoza); and Conservatory of Music (Mendoza). The following schools, functioning at the time the decree was issued, will be transferred to the university: School of Mines and Industry (San Juan); Higher Business School (Mendoza); School of Agriculture and Enology, formerly under the national Ministry of Agriculture (Mendoza); and Men's Normal School (San Luis).

The members of the first University Council, appointed in the decree, are Dr. Edmundo Correas, rector (president); Srs. Julio C. Raffo de la Reta and Manuel Lugones, for Mendoza; Dr. Salvador Doncel and Sr. Renato Aubone, for San Juan; and Sr. Nicolás Jofré and Dr. Reinaldo Pastor, for San Luis.

Inaugural ceremonies were held in the city of Mendoza on March 27.

The University of Cuyo is the sixth national university to be established in Argentina, the others being Buenos Aires, Córdoba, Tucumán, El Litoral, and La Plata.

College of Philosophy of the University of Brazil

Law 452 of July 5, 1937, created the University of Brazil, and provided that one of its component parts should be a National College of Philosophy, Science, and Letters. By a decree-law of April 4, 1939, this name was changed to the National College of Philosophy, and its purpose and organization defined.

The courses offered are grouped by

subject matter under four heads, philosophy, science, language and literature, and education. In the first and fourth, there will be but a single course of study; in science a student may major in mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural history, geography and history, or social science; in language and literature there are three majors, in the classics, romance languages, and Anglo-Germanic languages.

Graduates of the National College of Philosophy will be given preference in filling administrative and teaching positions in government departments and schools.

Extension lectures in Argentine public schools

President Roberto Ortiz of Argentina has repeatedly reiterated his desire to extend the social and cultural activities of elementary and secondary schools so that they may provide a well-rounded training for all students. Last year he issued decrees creating a General Bureau of Physical Education and a National Commission for School Aid, the latter to help poor students by distributing clothing, providing for medical care and establishing school lunchrooms. The latest measure enacted by President Ortiz to further this program was published in the *Boletín Oficial* for January 20, 1939. It has a three-fold objective: to improve the artistic taste of students through a better knowledge of music, painting, and literature; to make the school a social center for students and adults; and to bring the youth of the country into closer contact with its artists, men of letters and sociologists so that young people may have a better understanding of the cultural life of the nation. To this end a series of lectures is being delivered in the auditoriums of schools in Buenos Aires and its environs on Saturday afternoons, Sundays and holidays. The

speakers and topics for the lectures are selected by the Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction. The orchestra and the choral groups of the National Conservatory of Music also take part in the programs. The National Commission for Fine Arts and the institutes and bureaus under the Ministry or the National Council of Education cooperate by lending the artistic material necessary to illustrate lectures. Whenever possible the proceedings are broadcast by the government radio station. If the experiment proves successful arrangements will be made to extend these activities to schools in the provinces and national territories.

The Gimnasio Moderno of Bogotá

On March 18, 1939, the Gimnasio Moderno of Bogotá celebrated the 25th anniversary of its founding. The Gimnasio opened modestly with only thirty students, but under the wise leadership of Dr. Alberto Cocadine and Dr. Agustín Nieto Caballero, the present rector of the National University, it has become one of the outstanding schools not only in Colombia but in all South America. Today it has a student body of 200, who attend it from the kindergarten through college preparatory years, and is the model on which schools established in other parts of the country have been patterned.

During its first quarter century it has graduated men and women who now hold honored positions in all phases of national life. Putting emphasis on training for responsible leadership, the Gimnasio Moderno is still carrying out the ideals of its founders.

Exhibition of Argentine landscapes

The Municipal Loan Bank of Buenos Aires sponsored a Salon of Argentine

Landscapes, which was opened on April 10, 1939, in the bank building. The exhibit was organized both to encourage national artists and to give wider publicity to the scenery of the country. Artists of established reputation and talented newcomers in the field contributed a total of 109 paintings, which portrayed many regions and many aspects of the natural beauties of Argentina.

Artists' House dedicated in Valparaíso

The Association of Artists of Valparaíso, Chile, has acquired a building of its own, to be known as Artists' House. The property was formally dedicated on March 11, 1939, at the opening of the IX Annual Independents' Show. The new headquarters of the association will serve as a meeting place for artistic and cultural activities in the city. The president of the association, Sr. Julio Salcedo, acted as host to the gathering of officials, artists, writers, and the general public who attended the opening.

Pan American Child Congress postponed

The Government of Costa Rica has announced that the meeting of the Eighth Pan American Child Congress, originally scheduled to be held in San José from August 28 to September 4, 1939, has been postponed a few weeks. It will convene instead from October 12 to 19, in the same city.

Maternity Hospital in Paraguay

A model maternity hospital was opened last year in Asunción by the Red Cross Society of Paraguay. The hospital, which offers its services without charge, consists

of three departments: obstetrical, with two wards (24 beds), two operating rooms, an infant ward, out-patient service, isolation rooms for contagious cases, and sterilization and disinfection facilities; gynecological, with an operating room and out-patient service; and child welfare, consisting of a baby clinic, three incubators for premature infants, and a special ward for orphans.

In an annex there is a lecture hall where mothers may attend classes in hygiene, child welfare, cooking, and dressmaking. The hospital also offers a training course for nurses and social workers.

Competition for a biography of de Hostos

The De Hostos Centenary Commission, of which the Honorable Emilio del Toro, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Puerto Rico is chairman, has announced that the closing date for the literary competition to select a biography of Eugenio Maria de Hostos has been extended from December 31, 1939 to August 11, 1940. The publication of the complete works of de Hostos in twenty volumes will not be completed until September and the Commission feels that it would be unfair to deprive competitors of the wealth of hitherto unpublished material which the collection will contain.

The Commission will award a first and a second prize, consisting of diplomas and \$1,000 and \$250, respectively. The manuscripts may be submitted in either English or Spanish and should be approximately 75,000 words long. The rules of the competition provide that each person participating in the contest shall mark his manuscript with a distinctive motto and shall attach to the same an envelope sealed with sealing wax containing a slip of paper with his name and address. The

envelope shall be marked on the outside with the motto and the first line of the manuscript. Manuscripts which in any way permit an identification of the author before the awarding of the prize shall be rejected. A typewritten original and two carbon copies of the manuscript should be addressed to the Chairman of the Commission at San Juan, Puerto Rico.

Once the competition is over the originals of all manuscripts submitted will be bound in one volume and deposited in the Library of the University of Puerto Rico. The Commission will publish a limited commemorative edition, not to exceed one thousand copies, of the biography awarded first prize. This edition shall be distributed free of charge to libraries, universities and learned institutions. The author of the winning biography, however, will retain copyright ownership and be at liberty thereafter to publish as many editions of his work as he may desire. The Commission will not return any manuscripts, but their authors will be at liberty to exercise their copyright privileges as they see fit. The competition is open to all persons without limitations as to nationality or place of residence.

The First Assembly of Mexican Philologists and Linguists

Under the joint auspices of the Bureau of Indian Affairs and the National Polytechnic Institute, the First Assembly of Mexican Philologists and Linguists met at Mexico City from May 9 to 17, 1939. The meeting was organized by the Department of Anthropology of the National School of Biological Sciences, under the direction of Dr. D. F. Rubín de la Borbolla. The assembly met to discuss the problems of rural education in Indian languages, the unification of scientific alphabets for research work, and the for-

mation of adequate alphabets for ordinary writing of native languages; to study the problems which various languages present; and to provide for the continuity of research work. The following institutions sent representatives: the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the Department of Anthropology, the Agrarian Bureau, the National Institute of Anthropology and History, the Pan American Institute of Geography and History, the Mexican Anthropology Society, the Huey Tlatekpanaliztli Society, the Linguistic Society of America, and the Summer Institute of Linguistics. The following Indian Languages were represented in the Assembly: Náhuatl, Maya, Otomí, Zapotec, Mixtec, Totonac, Mazatec, Tarascan, Huastec, Chinantec, Popolacan, Cuitlatec, Matlatzinc, and Cuicatec. Representatives of fourteen different Mexican Indian groups were present during the deliberations to help solve certain problems in various languages.

With respect to alphabets, the Assembly agreed upon a general standard alphabet from which letters will be selected for the formation of special alphabets, to avoid typographical and phonetic difficulties for students, teachers, employees and in general all readers of Indian languages. It was agreed to adopt the principle of alphabetic flexibility so that letters may be used in different languages if values are similar. As far as consistent with the needs of each language, its alphabet is to be as similar as possible to the Spanish alphabet, so as to facilitate the learning of Spanish. Although the Assembly agreed to use single symbols, the use of diagrams is not forbidden, specially when endeavoring to make the orthography of any language conform to that of Spanish. The use of diacritical marks is to be discouraged because of the difficulties they present in printing, teaching, reading, and writing.

The Assembly discussed the alphabets

of the Mixtec, Totonac, Tarascan, Náhuatl, Mazatec, Otomí and Chinantec tongues and appointed commissions to determine the alphabet for each of these languages.

With reference to dialects, the Assembly decided to choose at the proper time the form of each language to be considered the standard, preferring the dialect that is spoken by the largest or culturally most important group and that has characteristics common to another dialect. In such cases as Maya and Náhuatl, the classical form is to be used as the standard language.

The Assembly also decided to establish an editorial committee to take charge of selecting and publishing modern linguistic works useful for research in the Indian languages and to obtain funds for the purchase of typographical material.

A campaign will be conducted to encourage teaching, reading, and writing in Indian languages, giving preference to native rural teachers for this work; to use the psycho-phonetic method to teach reading; and to teach Spanish only after the student has completed the second or third year of rural education. It was also recommended to the Government that the Bureau of Indian Affairs and other Government departments should, if possible, create fellowships for Indian rural teachers; that Indian languages be taught in high schools and colleges; and that inexpensive typographical equipment be purchased to establish local printing shops in the Indian schools and to train Indian printers.

In order to provide for the development and continuity of linguistic research and to cooperate with the authorities in charge of rural education in the Indian languages, the Assembly decided to establish a Council of Indian Languages, which will function under the auspices of the institutions represented at the Assembly and have its headquarters in the Department of Anthropology of the National School of Bi-

ological Sciences. A broad program was outlined for the Council, including the convocation of an International American Congress of Linguistics and cooperation in the linguistic research conducted in Central and South America. The Assembly approved and submitted to the Council a plan for preliminary research and instruction in the Indian Languages in the Tarascan zone.

Preservation of colonial monuments in Peru

The preservation and restoration of places of historic interest, monuments, buildings, furniture, jewelry, painting, sculpture, and in general all objects of historic and artistic value belonging to the colonial period in Peru have been entrusted to a National Council, composed of 11 members appointed by the President of the Republic. It will be the duty of the Council to make a general inventory of these sites, buildings, monuments, etc.; keep a permanent official register of them; and prevent the exportation of objects of artistic or historic value and the destruction or alteration of buildings, monuments, etc. It shall also organize exhibits of private collections and assume responsibility for their safekeeping. The establishment of a National Colonial Museum will be under its direction. The Council has broad powers to control, plan and execute restoration work undertaken by both the Government and private individuals. Owners of objects of historic or artistic value must exhibit them to the public annually at their own expense and risk, and lend them to such extraordinary exhibits as the Council may direct. Buildings and objects which, in the judgment of the Council, are of historic or artistic value may be sold only to the Government.

Brazilian school teacher wins fellowship

One of the ten fellowships that the American Association of University Women awarded this year to outstanding women scholars was won by Miss Olga Strehlneek, assistant teacher of psychology at the University of São Paulo, Brazil. She will receive \$1,500 to study advanced psychology and the organization and management of psychological laboratories at Columbia University Teachers College. Miss Strehlneek received her Bachelor of Arts degree at Mary Hardin-Baylor College, Texas.

Promotion of library cooperation

The American Library Association has received a grant of \$30,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation to conduct several studies of book and library conditions in Latin America, which will be the basis for increasing exchange of publications and developing greater library cooperation between the United States and the other American republics. The program outlined by the American Library Association includes:

"1) A survey on public interest in Latin American subjects as indicated by book collections and circulation in typical, small and medium-sized libraries, and 2) the assembling of information about Latin American libraries needed by the committee in developing more library cooperation, particularly regarding such subjects as:

"Courses offered for the instruction of librarians; plans for the development of public library systems for a whole country or for a large region; Latin American books which should be translated into English for North American readers; books in English (especially on library

work) which Latin American librarians would like to have in Spanish."

The American Library Association, whose executive offices are at 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, has appointed Dr. Arthur E. Gropp, Tulane University, New Orleans, La., chairman of the Committee on Library Cooperation with Latin America.

Pan American Day at the New York World's Fair

September 21 has been chosen for celebration as Pan American Day at the New York World's Fair. The members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, headed by the Hon. Cordell Hull, Chairman of the Board and Secretary of State of the United States, and the Hon. José Richling, Vice Chairman of the Board and Minister of Uruguay, will assemble at the Waldorf Astoria and proceed together to the Fair, where extensive ceremonies will take place in the Court of Peace. The Chairman and Vice Chairman will deliver addresses, and the first World Peace through World Trade Medal will be presented to Secretary Hull by Mr. Thomas J. Watson, Chairman of the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration, on behalf of the Commission. Latin American music will be heard. The complete program will be published in newspapers prior to the event.

First Argentine Congress of Sociology and Industrial Medicine

This congress will be held in Buenos Aires in November under the auspices of the government. Its purpose is to assemble professional men, technical experts, and leaders in industry, business, agriculture and labor to consider vital sociological and biological problems connected with labor,

especially industrial hygiene and diseases. The chairman of the organizing committee is Dr. Arturo Rossi.

Tourist Bureau in Haiti

The increase of tourist traffic to Haiti led the Government to establish a National Tourist Bureau at Port-au-Prince. Administered by a committee of ten members, the Bureau functions under the control of the Haitian Chamber of Commerce. Its duties are to study the organization of similar institutions in other countries; conduct a publicity campaign abroad, especially in Canada, the United States and Latin America, with regard to the attractions that the country offers; submit to the proper governmental authorities

projects designed to attract a larger number of tourists to Haiti; organize a service to guide, give information to, and protect visitors; and work closely with steamship companies, hotels, clubs, etc., to provide as pleasant a stay for tourists as possible.

Bolivia maintains orphan asylum in Chile

An appropriation of 500,000 bolivianos from the national government and all contributions made by the Bolivian people for the relief of the victims of the Chilean earthquake of January 24, 1939, have been devoted to the maintenance of the Bolivia Orphan Asylum founded in Chile under the auspices of the Chilean-Bolivian Cultural Institute.

NECROLOGY

JULIO BURBANO AGUIRRE.—Prominent leader of the Liberal Party of Ecuador; elected several times to the Ecuadorean Congress as representative of the Province of Guayas; Acting President of Ecuador (1917); Chairman of the City Council of Guayaquil; Manager of the Banco Territorial (1903–1925); died at the age of 78, at Guayaquil, Ecuador, on May 11, 1939.

JOSÉ BALTA.—Noted Peruvian mining engineer; former Minister of Finance and vice president of the Chamber of Deputies; died at Lima on March 14, 1939.

OCTAVIO BUSTAMANTE.—Mexican engineer; Assistant Director and Secretary of the Executive Committee of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History; dean of the faculty, National School of Engineering; died at the age of 60, at Mexico City on May 15, 1939.

JOSÉ MANUEL PUIG CASAURANG.—Statesman, diplomat, physician, and journalist; former Ambassador of Mexico to the United States and representative of Mexico on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union; elected several times to the

Mexican Congress; former Secretary of Public Education; Secretary of Industry, Commerce and Labor; Secretary of Foreign Affairs; Chairman of the Mexican Delegation to the Seventh International Conference of American States; died at the age of 51, at Habana, Cuba, on May 9, 1939.

ANTONIO C. RIVERA.—President of the National Legislative Assembly of Honduras and of the Central Committee of the Honduran Nationalist Party; lawyer, orator, and journalist; President of the Central American University Congress, San Salvador, 1907; died at Los Angeles, California, March 27, 1939.

ALBERTO ZELADA.—Minister of Labor and Social Welfare of Bolivia, lawyer and educator; died at the age of 36, at La Paz, Bolivia, on March 19, 1939.

RAFAEL TOBIAS.—General in the Brazilian Army, served under both the Empire and the Republic, retiring in 1893; last survivor of the Brazilian Army's epic Laguna retreat in the war with Paraguay; at the age of 94, at Rio de Janeiro, on June 19, 1939.

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PUBLICATIONS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima, Peru, in 1938. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant

Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, intellectual and agricultural cooperation, juridical matters, and travel, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 100,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIII, No. 10



OCTOBER 1939

Latin America at the San Francisco Exposition

GERMÁN ARCINIEGAS

Editor, "Revista de las Indias", Bogotá

THE Governments of Latin America received almost simultaneous invitations from New York and San Francisco to take part in their 1939 expositions, but because of limited funds most of them were able to participate in but one. This explains why only Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Panama, Peru, and El Salvador are represented at San Francisco.

But Latin American representation at the two fairs is greater than at any other international affair of this kind. Europe has never attracted to any of its great expositions so many participants from this hemisphere. This fact may be explained by geographic, commercial, political, and even purely sentimental reasons, although caprice is sometimes stronger than logic and it is not unusual

for governments to act in defiance of reason. It is pleasant to note that at least 14 Latin American countries are represented at New York or San Francisco, and Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, and Peru at both.

The Golden Gate Exposition is really a miniature city, within which the Latin American pavilions make a very interesting appearance. They are located in the area set aside for foreign nations, which is the cosmopolitan part of the Fair. Along a broad avenue stand in colorful array the buildings of many countries, to each of which the architect has tried to give the particular stamp of his national style. Opposite the roofs of the Japanese Pavilion, which curve downward like pine boughs, is the wall of colored marbles that identifies the Italian. The hues



Courtesy of Silvino da Silva

ARGENTINE PAVILION

of every flag in the world float over this international district. The Latin American pavilions fall into two groups; at one side of the avenue are the buildings of Argentina and Brazil, and on the other, those of Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Panama, Peru, and El Salvador.

Argentina and Brazil

Argentina and Brazil expended considerable effort and money on their participation, with excellent results; their buildings and exhibits compare favorably with those of important European nations. The chief impression gained in the spacious rooms where these American countries point with pride to their industrial progress and artistic and cultural development is that in the southern part of our America a world of infinite possibilities is reaching maturity.

Argentina presents samples of its industries and products, which include hardware, glass, petroleum, textiles, furniture, tobacco, sugar and candy, meats, fruit, and other foodstuffs. In an adjoining room are the fine arts and book exhibits. The Government of Argentina did not waste effort by sending hundreds of works of art to make a display impressive because of number or size. There are only 20 or 30 canvases, a few bronzes, and some marbles, but all are excellent. The arts in Argentina, which have drawn inspiration from Europe rather than from America, are masterly in their perfection. Many of the paintings might well grace the walls of the Luxembourg. The atmosphere of culture, thought, good taste, and security in Argentina enables its painters and sculptors to express their untroubled love of beauty.

The presentation of books also is notable. Buenos Aires has inherited a great part of the publishing business left without an outlet in Spain and has made an effort to produce editions as fine as the best issued in the peninsula. This business depends to a great extent on works by European authors, but among those by Argentine writers are admirable volumes, such as the monumental edition of *Martín Fierro* or certain books by Enrique Larreta and Ricardo Rojas.

Brazil has centered the emphasis of its pavilion on its major industries, especially coffee. Hence one of its greatest charms is an outdoor restaurant, tropical in style, where Brazilian coffee is served. In the central hall, whose novel decoration uses the national colors, green and yellow, is shown the wealth of precious stones to be

found in the country. There is a splendid display of textiles, woods, fruits, etc., which bulk large in its foreign trade. In one room the visitor is given pamphlets describing the most picturesque regions of the country, to familiarize him with the marvelous natural beauty of this vast southern republic. Some of these pamphlets are printed on paper of excellent quality, and a brief statement discreetly tucked away at the end gives them special significance: "Printed in Brazil on Brazilian paper."

American Republics on the Pacific

As I said above, the pavilions of the other Latin American countries, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Panama, and Peru, are grouped together on the Avenue of the Nations, across from



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BRAZILIAN PAVILION



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ECUADOREAN PAVILION

those of Argentina and Brazil. They are all countries on the Pacific coast which, because of this fact, have close ties with the western part of the United States. The group entitled "Nations of the Pacific"

has the greatest number of exhibitors, and perhaps the Golden Gate Exposition will serve to emphasize the importance of this geographical fact, which will be increasingly important for the economy, the

trade, and even the culture of western America.

In accordance with the general layout of the exposition, these American Pacific republics are grouped together, almost like a family. They give the impression of being a federation rather than isolated countries, for their pavilions surround a small square, as though it were a great patio common to all. Viewed from the Avenue of Nations, the buildings seem to express in architecture the whole Pacific coast. The colonial tower of the Colombian Pavilion, in the center, is the dominating feature, and all the other pavilions are in similar Spanish style, except those of Guatemala, Ecuador and Peru, which take their inspiration from indigenous architecture.

The welcome here offered the visitor could not be warmer or more cordial. Central America sounds a joyous note, which is accentuated from the very first by the music of the Guatemalan marimba players and the "typical orchestra" of El Salvador. Thanks to these two excellent groups of musicians, the South American patio is one of the liveliest spots in the Golden Gate Exposition. The marimba players had to move into the center of the square to play, for the Guatemalan Pavilion was too small to hold the public that gathered to hear them.

The many industries common to the countries we are discussing conduce to the impression of a single entity. Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, and El Salvador, for example, have put emphasis on their coffee. The textiles from Ecuador, Guatemala, and Peru include individual pieces of great value. The mining industry is represented chiefly by Chile, Colombia, and Peru, the last two showing beautiful examples of hand-wrought silver. Curious objects in delicate miniature work exemplifying a tradition centuries old may be seen

in Ecuador as well as in Panama, Peru, and El Salvador. The leather work of Chile and El Salvador has not only commercial value but also great artistic merit. Some statistical data show the visitor certain facts of international commerce not generally known. When people learn, for example, that Chilean nitrate pays a million dollars a year to the Panama Canal just in transit fees or that a large percentage of the tuna fish eaten in the United States comes from the Galápagos Islands in Ecuador, they begin to understand some of the generally unknown reasons that explain why the trade figures of the United States and South America have reached the present high level. Gold mining, which is represented in these pavilions mainly by Colombia and Chile, is worth \$15,000,000 a year to the former and \$9,000,000 to the latter.

Latin American Art

There is not a single pavilion that does not bear witness to the interest the governments have taken in the artistic development of their nations. The present tendency of these countries is to incorporate within a general aesthetic concept elements of the ancient pre-Colombian cultures and of the Spanish tradition. In the collection of ceramics at the Peruvian pavilion there are original vases and reproductions of some of the most interesting pieces made some five centuries ago by the former inhabitants of Peru. Colombia shows objects made of gold by the Quimbayas, the Indian nation that did the best work of that kind, which date from about the same period. Ecuador exhibits some of the oil paintings and polychrome statues produced in Quito during colonial days; that city was then the greatest center for painting and sculpture on the continent and supplied most of the churches and private residences of South America with

works of religious art during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Peru also has a display of colonial furniture and a pageant of small colored figures showing the history of costume in that country from the Inca period through colonial days; the curious visitor will be fascinated by the rich and colorful raiment.

As for contemporary art, the works exhibited do not begin to give complete information on painting and sculpture in Latin America, but they do indicate the present trends, and some of the examples are excellent. As I have said, the whole Fair has an artistic background, so that it is much more than merely a commercial demonstration. In some cases artists of renown have come to supervise the work on individual pavilions. To cite only two cases, Ecuador sent Nicolás Delgado, Di-

rector of the School of Fine Arts of Quito and one of the ablest and most sensitive minds of that country, to arrange its pavilion; and Colombia had Pablo de la Cruz, who is considered one of its most distinguished architects, go to San Francisco to design its building.

In any event, the visitor who has not kept abreast of art developments in Latin America will be very agreeably surprised when, in a small building, like that of Guatemala, he comes upon two oil portraits painted with unquestionable skill. The fact is that painting has undergone a revolution in our countries during the last few years. The unrest in Europe overtook those who were quietly working in the old academies, and offered them new points of view and unsuspected means of technical accomplishment. But the revolution has



Courtesy of Silvino da Silva

COLOMBIAN PAVILION

not yet dehumanized the arts, as some Europeans claim, because, among other reasons, the deep human content of our American life lends itself little to purely intellectual digressions; it is impossible to treat abstractly any life as rich as that which composes our daily existence. A greater influence has been exerted upon us by the social perceptions of Diego Rivera—a fine painting by whom, it should be noted, is in the *Casa Mexicana*—than by the much publicized advanced French schools. In the Argentine Pavilion, which to my mind presents a school of painting directly derived from Europe, the visitor will find a cubist painting, but the artist does not lose himself in the simple abstraction of planes, for a figure is discernible, bathed by color in sentimental light. There, too, is an admirable high relief, composed of the

heads of a group of men at a public demonstration, which is strongly executed, giving a virile impression of a crowd; it might well be called an example of social art, which is more characteristic of America than is the dehumanized art of Europe.

The Peruvian Pavilion contains one of the largest collections of contemporary art, with frescoes by Antonio Sotomayor and works by Alberto Luza and other Peruvians. Luza shows himself to be a decorative artist of exquisite simplicity. Some of his works at the Exposition, which show scenes of colonial life in Lima, such as *La Tapada*, are done with fineness of execution and detail. They are Peruvian traditions expressed in color. The *Procession at Cuzco*, by Ángel Rojas, is a good example of the typical religious festivals that have centered on church images both



Courtesy of Silvino da Silva

CHILEAN PAVILION



Courtesy of Silvino da Silva

GUATEMALAN PAVILION

the devotion of the Catholic populace and the mystic fervor of the Incas. With the colonial church in the background and the square crowded with people, the images pass amid candles and flowers, offering a spectacle that makes a deep impression on all who visit the ancient capital of the Inca empire.

In the Colombian Pavilion there is a sunlit tropical landscape which does credit to the vigorous hand and rich palette of Félix Otálora, and a composition based on American fruits—the market scene by Miguel Díaz. Sergio Trujillo, one of the finest and most cultured artists in America, shows delightful portraits of women, with a high decorative value, and Gómez Jaramillo, who painted the murals in the capitol at Bogotá a few years ago, exhibits canvases representative of his art.

Wood carving is today, in almost all parts of America, one of the favorite forms of sculpture. Perhaps its popularity has increased since José Vasconcelos, Secretary of Education in Mexico, began to put especial emphasis on art in the *Casas del Pueblo*. It would be impossible to enumerate here all the examples of this craft shown in San Francisco, but mention should be made of José Domingo Rodríguez and of Ramón Barba, whose works have attracted much attention.

Mexico

It is to be regretted that Mexico is not officially represented. In the western part of the United States, the Mexican tradition has not died out and there is a rage for Mexican things. Mexican toys and souvenirs are sold everywhere in San Fran-



Courtesy of Silvino da Silva

SALVADOREAN PAVILION

cisco and of all Spanish American literature, the Mexican is the one which has found, not only in the West but throughout the United States, the most cordial reception. This American taste is fostered by the rich life of the Mexican people and the dramatic scenes of its contemporary history. A constant current of tourists is year by year increasing the knowledge of Mexico in the United States, and it was a very wise move on the part of the First Pan American Travel Congress, which met this year at San Francisco, to choose Mexico City as the seat of the next.

But if Mexico is not represented officially, there is a pavilion, operated by private enterprise, and containing all kinds of Mexican articles: glass, hand-wrought silver, pottery, toys, textiles, etc. This building, whose doors open on the same

patio as do those of the other countries of the American Pacific Coast, is one of the busiest and most popular. There is hardly a single visitor to the exposition who does not enter it and carry away a Mexican souvenir of the Fair.

Cultural Activities

In the Latin American pavilions many ceremonies of a cultural nature have been held and these have made the exposition a kind of university for us. Almost without interruption receptions are being held, lectures given, motion pictures shown. The Argentine Pavilion is the only one to have a first-class motion picture theater. Panama has arranged its exhibit to center principally about the pictures that are continuously shown, accompanied by explanatory notes—a very intelligent means

of informing the public about the life of a nation. Panama is today one of the "musts" in tourist travel; more than a million persons a year disembark. Few places in America can be visited more agreeably than Panama City, and Old Panama, with its ruins and pirate legends. Panama City has the gay aspect characteristic of cities on the Caribbean shores, in addition to the activities incident to the life of the Canal. All this passes before the eyes of every visitor to the pavilion as he watches the motion pictures.

The Directors of the Exposition

The directors of the exposition laid great stress on the participation of the Latin American republics. Everyone who has had any connection with the pavilions can bear witness to the effort that the directors made for the success of each exhibitor. It is only fair to mention especially the Herculean labor of Major Keatinge, who has been the right hand of the exhibitors. This, as a matter of fact, is only one proof of the incomparably friendly and cordial welcome that Latin Americans receive in California. It can almost be said that to be Latin American is a passport that entitles the traveler in this part of the country to be received with a special welcome. I have been fortunate enough to live for a little while in this western region and I have always been greeted almost as a member of the family, everywhere, even in small towns.

San Francisco and the Exposition

The Golden Gate Exposition is a gigantic undertaking, which proves the enterprising character of the men of the West who have successfully carried out the most extraordinary ventures. Anyone visiting the San Francisco Fair today finds it hard to realize what it must have meant to have built so splendid a city on the ruins of the

disaster of 1906. There is a general idea that California, with its noble forests and fertile fields, is a place where man may rest and contemplate nature. The truth is that this is perhaps the best place to appreciate man's effort to force the earth to obey him and be productive. Golden Gate Park, one of the most beautiful in the world, is an example of what man has had to contend with in this region. The park has been built, inch by inch, on what was an impassable sandy lot, of which only a legend remains today. Treasure Island, where the exposition is held, is also the work of man. But the most magnificent sight is offered by the two bridges: Golden Gate Bridge and the one connecting San Francisco with Oakland. These, the greatest in the world, are marvels of construction as significant in our day as was the Eiffel Tower in 1890.

The exposition is impressive not only for grandeur but also for life and color. The flood of light that nightly bathes all the buildings in an electric clarity, with not a single bulb visible; the fountains, the sculptures, and the gardens make Treasure Island today one of the most beautiful spots in the world, and everyone who has the privilege of seeing it cannot help regretting that all this will disappear in a few months. Then the space will be cleared for a landing field, to make one of the greatest airports in the world.

I have before me a photograph of the World's Fair held less than a quarter of a century ago in this same city of San Francisco. The occasion was the opening of the Panama Canal, which was expected to bring new life to the west coast of the United States. The buildings of that fair, situated inside the urban area, against the background of the bay, where neither Treasure Island nor the bridges of today had been thought of, seem to belong to quite another city. Only in memory do

they survive today. The opening of the Canal did stimulate the life of San Francisco. In twenty years the whole waterfront has been rebuilt, a new port with 39 piers has been constructed, the city

limits have been extended in all directions, the bay has been crossed by two famous bridges; all this is only an indication of what the Pacific Coast up and down the American continent will be in



Courtesy of Silvino da Silva

PERUVIAN PAVILION

time. In the twentieth century San Francisco has leaped ahead in two bounds, first when it rose again from its ashes and later under the stimulus of the Canal.

When this article was written, more than 5,900,000 visitors had entered the gates of the Fair. Perhaps today the heralds will announce the arrival of the 6,000,000th visitor, an event which is almost the occasion for a minor ceremony, beginning with an onslaught of photographers and ending with a series of attentions to the unknown visitor who unexpectedly becomes the celebrity of the day.

America, the Self-sufficient Continent

If I were asked today to give a definition of America, it would be based on the great impression made on me by the San Francisco Exposition: America is the self-sufficient continent. For it is self-sufficient not as might have been true of a vassal during the Middle Ages, when no one went to his neighbor for anything because men were content to eat black bread made from wheat they themselves had grown and to clothe themselves with coarse fabrics spun and woven from their own flax. America is self-sufficient, but at a twentieth-century level, and its standard of living is higher every day.

In Europe I once heard a Latin American describe to an Englishman in vivid words the phenomenon of our life in this hemisphere. "Our colonies," he said, "are within our own borders." And that is true. We lack neither land nor raw materials and we have able men besides. Much doubt has been expressed as to our capability and as to the outcome of the severe tests to which some nations of Americas have been submitted because of their mixture of races. Yet to my mind Brazil answers that argument with extraordinary eloquence. Brazil, a huge melting pot to which Negroes, Japanese,

Germans, Italians, Russians, Spaniards, and Austrians have all made their contribution, has a remarkable vitality. "Well," said the Brazilians to themselves a few years ago, "we need a new export crop." Almost overnight their cotton production rose and Brazil became one of the leading cotton-growing nations of the world.

Study of the show-cases at the San Francisco Exposition and perusal of statistics demonstrate the ability of Latin America to provide petroleum, gold, meat, coffee, fruits, cotton, nitrate, silver, wheat, corn, sugar, cocoa, tobacco, and precious stones. In other words, everything that Europe must seek in colonies we have within our own borders. Only a few months ago I visited a small town in Ecuador—Otavalo—whose inhabitants live completely isolated from the outside world. They speak Quechua, have their own markets, but not a yard of English cotton cloth nor a single trifle from any other country in the world. They live on what they themselves produce and nothing more. But this town is not a community of savages. The farmer dresses better than most of the farmers in other parts of the world, not only having the clothing necessary for protection against the elements but also enjoying a certain amount of luxury in fabrics and necklaces. If this town were judged by its foreign-trade statistics it would be among the last in the world, but if it is judged by its degree of culture and its daily life it would be below few European peasant communities.

After the depression and the consequent discontinuance of loans from the United States, a very healthy readjustment took place in Latin America. Everywhere industries of various kinds sprang up and new activities appeared. The industrial growth of Latin America during the last ten years is really extraordinary and will be marvelled at when an adequate statistical picture of the whole is drawn. Speaking in

very general terms, we have no heavy industry, but nearly every kind of manufacture has been attempted and great progress has been made. If we can assure America of an atmosphere of peace and security, we shall soon have a continent whose economy does not need to rely on any other hemisphere and whose productive capacity and labor resources will permit its inhabitants to undertake the most daring and progressive enterprises.

A general knowledge of what such expositions as the New York and San Francisco Fairs are and represent from the American point of view will help strengthen the knowledge of America's own ca-

capacity. As for the San Francisco Exposition, it has, to my mind, a special value in that it accentuates the importance of the west coast of the Americas. This long coast, extending from Chile to Alaska and facing the greatest of all oceans, must perforce intensify its communications until there is a great current of interchange. The Exposition is a revelation not only to those who have not known this Pacific world but also to its own inhabitants, who were unaware of their own worth and their own capacities. If San Francisco has in any way helped increase this knowledge, I think it will be amply repaid for its efforts.



A Nation Recovers

Chile's Reconstruction

JACK BRADLEY FAHY

Editor, "The Hemisphere"

THE EARTHQUAKE that took place on the night of January 24th, 1939, will long be remembered by hundreds of thousands of Chileans as the most terrifying experience of their lives. For days the world's newspapers carried headlines of the biggest disaster in recent years. From the far corners of the earth aid was rushed to the stricken victims. Gradually the horror of the calamity dimmed. News interest shifted to other scenes.

Yet the story of Chile's recovery is a fascinating example of a nation's ability to mobilize its human and physical resources at a time of crisis. In less than ten minutes the earthquake wiped out nearly fifty thousand lives and made seven hundred thousand people homeless. Now, six months after the tragedy, the normal pattern of life in the affected region has been restored to a remarkable degree. The progress in reconstruction is a tribute to the fortitude and capability of the Chilean people. The prompt response in material help from Chile's sister nations is a tribute to the deepening bonds of Pan Americanism.

Just a month after Don Pedro Aguirre Cerda was inaugurated as President of Chile the earthquake struck. The new administration's legislative program was shelved. Political differences melted in face of the national emergency. Ordinary daily tasks were forsaken by Chileans and foreigners alike in their spontaneous desire to alleviate the suffering of the survivors.

Before daylight, on the night of the catastrophe, President Aguirre Cerda,

together with his wife, his Minister of the Interior, other officials, and numerous doctors had boarded a special train in an effort to reach the afflicted region. The train moved south slowly. No one knew if the trestles and bridges were safe to cross. Behind the Presidential special came eleven Red Cross convoy trains. The President's quick action had set the note for rescue work.

At Rancagua, fifty miles south of Santiago, the train stopped briefly to pick up telegraphic reports of the earthquake. A crowd had gathered at the station. The people clamored for a speech when they heard of the President's presence. His mind was intent on the devastation that lay ahead; he refused.

One hundred and eighty miles from Santiago, at Linares, the train came to a final halt. The bridge across the Ancoa River was unsafe. Beyond lay Parral, San Carlos, Chillán, Yungay, and a score of additional towns and cities, all in ruins. An ominous silence pervaded the region. Highways were blocked, railway lines lay twisted and broken, telegraph and telephone wires were down, only radio messages came through with meagre news of the extent of the damage.

One by one the Chilean Government services went into action. Martial law was declared throughout the six affected provinces. Soldiers began to clear the roads, fill the great fissures that halted traffic, and push forward in motorized columns laden with medical supplies and



THE CITY OF CONCEPCIÓN

The Government of Chile is carrying on in Concepción and other communities damaged by last January's earthquake a remarkable work of reconstruction.

personnel. Within twenty - four hours every town had a military commander and a semblance of order emerged from the chaos. Sleep was unthought of as men and officers struggled to release thousands of trapped and injured townspeople. Details were ordered out to prevent looting, to repair water systems and drainage facilities. A thousand extra conscripts were called to service in the Army's new Emergency Work Battalion.

Chile's national police force, the Carabineros, moved in to aid in the rescue work. All unauthorized traffic was denied entrance to the area. No one was allowed to enter or leave the towns after sunset. Speculation in food products and salvaged articles was prohibited. Sale of alcoholic beverages was forbidden. Even music was banned in deference to the bereaved families.

The Chilean Navy sent a squadron from Valparaíso to Talcahuano, seaport for Concepción. Hundreds of homeless people were waiting for transportation to other parts of Chile where friends and relatives anxiously expected them. The ships brought food, medical supplies, doctors and nurses. The *Exeter* and the *Ajax*, of the British Navy, aided in the evacuation.

Meanwhile aviation had begun to play its part in the rescue work. All foreign airlines operating in Chile placed planes at the disposal of the Government.

The Chilean Air Force made 322 flights between Santiago and the ruined towns. The military planes carried 1,181 passengers, 114 doctors, 50 nurses. Over 30,000 pounds of medical supplies and 8,500 pounds of freight were transported. Air force pilots flew 414 injured persons out of the earthquake region.

The call for volunteers issued by the Ministry of Health was answered by hundreds of doctors, nurses, and medical students. Under efficient direction they were formed into teams and assigned to specific areas. In one day surgeons performed over four hundred amputations. To check spreading disease due to polluted drinking water and broken drainage systems the Ministry of Health began the herculean task of inoculating the population. A total of 454,959 inoculations was given.

The barometer of disease fell as water systems were restored. Sanitary Engineer E. D. Hopkins of the U. S. Public Health Service, now on duty with the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, was spending the year in Chile at the request of the Government. Cooperating with the Army and Navy Medical Corps and the health authorities, he safeguarded the water consumed by the affected area. Thanks to proper chlorination of the water, the incidence of typhoid fever was reduced or it was stamped out entirely in devastated regions. Within a few days electric power plants were again functioning. Coastal fishermen contributed their entire catches to help feed the hungry population. Food and clothing, including donations rushed from abroad, were distributed.

As news of the earthquake victims' urgent needs was flashed over the wires there was a quick response from governments and private citizens. Argentina sent planes with medical aid and donated fuel for Chile's own planes. A ship was despatched from Buenos Aires laden with meat, milk powder and other food products. Peru sent a ship with four hundred tons of foodstuffs. From Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Curaçao, Ecuador, Nicaragua, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, El Salvador, Uruguay, and Venezuela, came contributions in clothing, food, and money. European

nations made generous donations. Even war-torn China sent its share. The United States first sent military planes with medical stores from the Canal Zone and then sent a "super flying fortress", the B-15, with 3,200 pounds of relief supplies. The Red Cross issued a call to its 3,700 branches for contributions. Red Cross experts flew to Chile to cooperate with the authorities there. The years of work in Pan Americanism and Good Neighborliness showed instant results in Chile's hour of need.

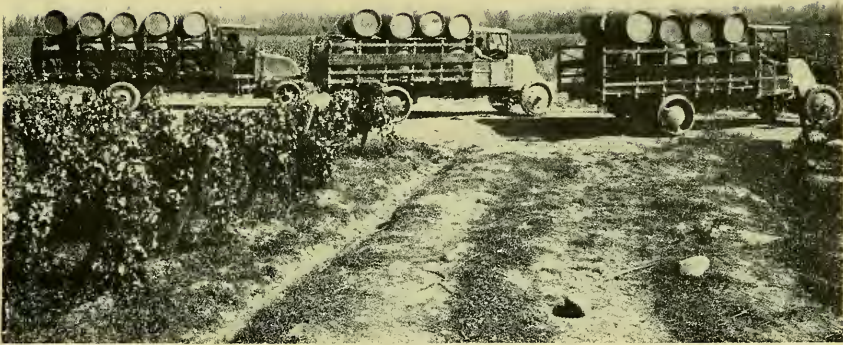
Efficient distribution of the supplies was undertaken by the Government. People's Restaurants, established in nine of the larger cities, began serving hundreds of hot meals to the people who had lived for days on cold rations.

In addition to immediate damage the basic economy of all southern Chile was threatened. Interrupted communications meant virtual isolation not only to the earthquake region but to all the territory farther south. Damaged irrigation ditches spelled ruin for the crops. Business men and manufacturers faced bankruptcy because of lost stocks and wrecked factories. Some farm families, having lost all of their worldly possessions, asked for resettlement in Government agricultural colonies.

One by one these tremendously vital difficulties were tackled by the Government. Within nine days three thousand men working in continuous shifts rebuilt the miles of twisted railway lines. Trains began to move.

Thousands of laborers went to work repairing irrigation ditches and crop loss was held to a minimum. Wine growers were permitted to ship and sell their products tax free in order to raise the capital necessary to replace their smashed equipment before the approaching grape harvest.

The National Credit Institute suspended amortization and interest payments for



TRUCKS CARRYING WINE THROUGH A CHILEAN VINEYARD

After the earthquake the Chilean Government gave special privileges to wine growers to help them recover from their losses.

those merchants and industrialists who had suffered losses due to the earthquake. In addition new credits were granted to reestablish commerce and manufacture. Lumbermen were extended financial assistance to stimulate their much-needed production for reconstruction.

Although the majority of the Chileans in the six provinces affected by the January catastrophe preferred to remain where they were, and a few thousand sought refuge in other parts of the country, the earthquake intensified the problem of colonization. The Agricultural Colonization Board estimates that approximately 40,000 families, many of them from the devastated zone, now await settlement on Government lands. Authorities have declared that the public domain is more than sufficient to settle this number, but consider the principal obstacle to be the financing of the families through their

initial period as independent farmers. Some eight hundred applicants have been settled during the past six months, whereas in the previous ten years the number of families in such colonies totaled 1,083.

No problem was too small to receive Government consideration. Students whose education seemed suddenly terminated when their parents' financial resources were wiped out were provided for by special scholarships.

Most pressing of all was the problem of housing: fourteen percent of Chile's entire population was homeless. Following the earthquake on January 24 hundreds of thousands of people were forced to sleep in the open. A few of the more fortunate found temporary housing in empty freight cars. The Army set up tents for a few thousand more. But the situation became grave when violent rainstorms swept the countryside only four days after the earth-

quake. On the following day, January 29, new tremors revived the panic of the refugees. While the damage from the subsequent tremors was slight, rain created a desperate need for large-scale, temporary shelter.

In the opinion of expert observers many of the towns would never be rebuilt. Yet most of the people did not have the economic means to move away. The Government launched a program of provisional housing. Trade unions displayed their cooperation by voluntarily reducing their wage scales. Construction achieved an amazing pace. In all 243 large barracks were built. These were made of lumber and roofed with sheet metal. They will last for five or six years; long enough, it is believed, until permanent housing can be provided. Also constructed were 27 public service buildings, 81 schools, eight hospitals and nine jails.

The Government appointed a commission to study plans for permanent reconstruction. It was found that the greatest loss of life occurred in poorly built houses, especially those built of adobe and brick. Hence it was decided that reconstruction, if it were to give a reasonable measure of safety, must entail the additional expense of earthquake-resisting materials, because earthquakes are not new to Chile. The city of Concepción was virtually destroyed in 1754 and again in 1835. Chillán was ruined by a violent tremor in 1858. The proportions of the most recent earthquake were greater than any previously recorded. Fortunately for the Chilean people reconstruction this time will mean more comfortable housing as well as protection against future disasters. Thus, as in the case of Chicago's Great Fire, a portion of the suffering springing from the grim tragedy will be ameliorated by improved living conditions.

As the Government strove to restore

normal conditions the expense of the relief work rose. Establishment of the People's Restaurants cost 702,799 pesos. Repair and reconstruction of railroad property amounted to 39,509,702 pesos. Two Government planes valued at 3,000,000 pesos were destroyed in accidents resulting from rescue work. And the program of provisional shelter for 700,000 people amounted to 115,227,000 pesos. None of these expenditures, naturally, were provided for by Chile's 1939 budget. Financing became the most important concern of the Government.

Many of the deputies and senators had made trips to the stricken cities and were familiar with the needs. The discussion of financing the reconstruction divided itself into two schools of opinion: those who felt authorization for a bond issue should be restricted to bare reconstruction costs as opposed to those who favored a loan large enough to establish revenue-producing industries, non-competitive with private industry, in order to provide the Government with funds for the servicing of the debt and eventual payment of the entire obligation. The latter viewpoint was finally adopted by Congress. Thus two corporations were set up, one to deal with reconstruction, the other with the economic development of the Republic. The total of internal and external loans authorized amounted to two billion pesos (\$64,000,000 U. S. currency).

When I visited Chillán recently I found a vast change had taken place in the six months following the earthquake. The emotional tension and desperation had largely disappeared. A surprising number of houses had been repaired and were occupied once more. Those living in the long wooden barracks showed a cheerful determination to make the best of their lot until more permanent quarters were available. The streets had been cleared

of débris. Public services were running quite normally. Farm workers were trudging in from their day's work in the fields. At a street corner a group of chattering youngsters frankly compared their new teacher to the one who was killed in the earthquake. As the sun sank behind the distant hills the crumbled walls of a thousand ruined homes made a tragic

silhouette against the flaming sky. The sadness of the scene was suddenly broken by the strains of *Cielito Lindo*. The ban on music had been lifted only recently. Six months before Chillán was known as the City of the Dead. Tonight there was singing. With such indomitable spirit and optimism there is little doubt that Chile's reconstruction will be successful.



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A COUNTRY SCENE IN CHILE

American and Brazilian Generals Exchange Visits

THE EXCHANGE OF VISITS between Brigadier General George C. Marshall, Deputy Chief of Staff of the United States War Department and Major General Pedro Aurelio Góes Monteiro, Brazilian Chief of Staff, representatives of the armies of two powerful but peace-loving nations, was undoubtedly one of the events of major inter-American significance this year. Their visits were a token not only of the traditional friendship which has always united Brazil and the United States but of the decision which the American Republics expressed at Lima to maintain the principles upon which their solidarity is based "against all foreign intervention or activity that may threaten them." As *Brazilian Business*, the organ of the American Chambers of Commerce for Brazil, said on the occasion of General Marshall's good will tour of Brazil, made last May at the invitation of the Brazilian Government: "The vital point of the visit was that it showed clearly and beyond a shadow of a doubt that the two nations were one in point of view so far as democracy and democratic principles were concerned and that both were willing to resist with all their resources any attempt to weaken or destroy these principles." *Correio da Manhã*, a leading Rio de Janeiro daily, characterized the visit as not merely a gesture demonstrating the cordiality existing between the two governments and peoples but as something to do with "the very life of this Hemisphere." No treaties of alliance are necessary, it continued, to maintain the peace of the Hemisphere, for the Americas are united by an unshakable solidarity which makes

them a solid bloc "at this hour in which everything seems to be disintegrating in the other Hemisphere, from which two great oceans separate us."

When General Pedro Aurelio Góes Monteiro, Chief of Staff of the Brazilian Army, as the invited guest of the United States Government and particularly of the high command of the American Army, returned the visit to Brazil of General Marshall, *The New York Times* expressed a similar view with regard to the visit of the South American soldier. "His visit at this time," it stated, "has unusual significance in view . . . of our concern for the military solidarity of the New World against any potential threat from overseas. It is also testimony to the close and harmonious relations that exist between the two largest powers of the Americas and to the newly cooperative character of the Monroe Doctrine. Though no military alliance is contemplated, it is safe to assume that the conversations between General Monteiro and our War Department's staff will go beyond mere soldiers' talk and the usual formalities of polite intercourse.

"Brazil, not an aggressive nation", the editorial continued, "is one which has gained far more by diplomacy than by arms. She does not threaten any of the ten countries that border her vast territory nor is she menaced by any of her neighbors. Yet, by reason of her population, which is substantially that of France, and of her great natural resources, she is potentially a major military power, and in future calculations will deserve to be reckoned with as such. Thrust out into the Atlantic to



Courtesy of the U. S. War Department

GENERAL MARSHALL IN BRAZIL

From left to right: General Eurico Gaspar Dutra, Minister of War; the Hon. Jefferson Caffery, Ambassador of the United States to Brazil; President Vargas; Brigadier General George C. Marshall, then Deputy Chief and now Chief of Staff of the United States Army.

within an easy air flight of Africa, provision for adequate defense is vital to the preservation of her national integrity and sovereignty. In view of the current wolfishness in international relations generated by the axis states of Europe and Asia and of our own responsibility to help preserve the American continent for its own peoples, the military strategy of Brazil cannot be divorced from our own larger defense plans."

The mission headed by General Marshall, designated Chief of Staff of the United States Army upon the retirement of General Malin Craig, left the United States on May 10 aboard the *Nashville*, arriving at Rio de Janeiro fifteen days later. General Marshall was charged with the agreeable duty of inviting General Góes Monteiro to return with him for a visit to

the United States. Enthusiastically received by the Government and the people of Brazil, during their first day in the Brazilian capital the members of the mission paid visits to the President of the Republic, the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, War, and the Navy, the Mayor of Rio de Janeiro, and the General Staff of the Army. That evening a dinner was tendered in their honor by the American Ambassador, the Hon. Jefferson Caffery. During the following days the official program combined visits to various military and naval units with a round of social festivities, which included a lunch by the American Military Mission to Brazil and a reception at the Military Club.

On the afternoon of May 27, General Marshall and the other members of the mission, accompanied by a group of



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GENERAL GÓES MONTEIRO CALLS ON SECRETARY HULL



Courtesy of the U. S. War Department

GENERAL GÓES MONTEIRO AT FORT MEADE

From left to right: Colonel Gilbert M. Allen, Infantry; Major General Pedro Aurelio Góes Monteiro, Chief of Staff of Brazilian Army; General Malin Craig, Chief of Staff, U. S. Army; the Hon. Carlos Martins Pereira e Souza, Ambassador of Brazil to the United States; Major General James K. Parsons, Commanding General, 3d Corps Area; and Brigadier General George C. Marshall, Deputy Chief of Staff.

Brazilian officers, left Rio de Janeiro by plane for São Paulo, the center of the Brazilian coffee and cotton district. There they were entertained by the Governor of the State. After an automobile trip to the port of Santos they flew south to the cities of Curityba and Porto Alegre, where a hearty welcome was extended to them. They next went via Rio to Bello Horizonte, capital of the rich mining state of Minas Geraes, returning to the capital on June 1. In the following days a luncheon was offered in their honor by the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Sr. Oswaldo Aranha, and a dinner was tendered at the Jockey Club by General Eurico Gaspar Dutra, Minister

of War. On June 6 a review of several units of the First Military Region was held. The same evening General Marshall entertained on board the *Nashville* at a dinner and reception for Brazilian and American officials. General Marshall expressed to President Getulio Vargas before leaving Rio de Janeiro on June 7 his thanks for the many courtesies which had been extended to him and the members of his mission and his admiration for the discipline, preparedness, and efficiency of the Brazilian Army and Navy.

On the return voyage the *Nashville*, bearing both the American and Brazilian missions, made a stop at Recife, where a

hearty reception was extended by the local authorities.

At Virginia Capes a squadron of 42 bombers and pursuit planes met the cruiser on June 20 and escorted it part way up Chesapeake Bay. The *Nashville* then proceeded to Annapolis, where General Góes Monteiro was welcomed by military, naval and State Department officials. His tour of the United States from the east to the west coast and return began at the Naval Academy, where he inspected the plant and reviewed the midshipmen. Then he and his aides were taken to Fort Meade, Maryland, where there was another review and an informal reception, before they went to the Brazilian Embassy in Washington. In the District of Columbia they were escorted by cavalry combat cars.

The next two days the Brazilian chief of staff spent in Washington and vicinity. One day was given over largely to a visit to the battlefield of Gettysburg, where the Brazilian general astonished his companions by his accurate knowledge of United States military history. A reception at the Brazilian Embassy and a dinner by General Malin Craig, retiring Chief of Staff of the United States Army, completed his first day at the nation's capital.

The morning of the second day was devoted to a tour of the city, a visit to the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier at Arlington, and a visit to the Pan American Union, where he was greeted by Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General, and by the Brazilian members of the staff. At noon he was the guest of President Roosevelt at the White House for luncheon.

On June 23 the Brazilian General and his aides, accompanied by American offi-

cers, left Bolling Field, Washington, for a two weeks' tour of the country in the four Douglas planes that had been put at their disposal for the flight across the continent. These planes were usually accompanied by an imposing escort of military aircraft. The War Department made every effort to give the distinguished visitors a thorough view of the United States and its military establishment. The first stop was at Langley Field, where the Air Corps held special maneuvers in honor of General Góes Monteiro.

During the tour other stops were made at Barksdale Field, an important post of the General Headquarters Air Force; Randolph Field, Texas, known as the West Point of the air, near San Antonio; El Paso; the Grand Canyon; March Field, another General Headquarters Air Force post; Los Angeles; San Francisco; Kansas City; Louisville; Fort Knox, Kentucky, where a mechanized division performed special maneuvers; and Detroit. At Los Angeles and San Francisco General Góes Monteiro was afforded an impressive aerial view of the United States fleet. Leaving Detroit on July 6 he returned to Washington, departing a few days later for New York, where he visited West Point, Governors Island, and the World's Fair. On July 19 he returned to Washington and made a farewell call on President Roosevelt, expressing his pleasure in his visit; then sailed for Brazil a few days later. In bidding good-by to the United States General Góes Monteiro expressed his whole-hearted appreciation for the reception accorded him by the military authorities, government officials, and private citizens.

Adventures in Taste

DOROTHY M. TERCERO

Editorial Division, Pan American Union

THOSE OF US who have had the good fortune to visit any of the Latin American republics must have observed that not the least part of each country's individuality lies within, or emanates from, its kitchens. The cuisine of Latin America, that skillful and savoury blending of Spanish and native Indian cookery which has evolved during the four hundred years since the Conquest, offers a new and delicious adventure in taste to all who try its fascinating array of dishes.

Perhaps a large part of its goodness derives from the fact that so many of the ingredients of almost any meal were cultivated and used by the Indians of the Americas long before Columbus arrived upon American shores. First of all, there was that well-known *pièce de résistance* of the American Thanksgiving dinner, the turkey, which was indigenous to so many sections of North and Central America. Then such standard foods as corn, potatoes, sweet potatoes, tomatoes, string and lima beans, squash, chocolate, many kinds of nuts—not to mention the more exotic products of the tropics and subtropics—pineapples, avocados, chirimoyas, mameys, papayas (the juice of which has only recently appeared in the stores of the United States in bottles and cans, advertised as being highly beneficial because of its pepsin content), and so on—all were gifts of the New World to the Old. The Spaniards' part in introducing these foods to the rest of the world was noted by Robert Cushman Murphy in the November 1938 issue of the *Bulletin of the*

Garden Club of America, Conservation III, as follows:

North and South America were richer in variety of plant food resources than all the rest of the world. Gregory Mason once wrote in *Natural History*, "At least five-sevenths of the products we consume at any big dinner in the United States today are made up of things we owe to the American Indian, from the pre-prandial tomato juice to the post-prandial cigars."

Now the interesting point is that every one of these products was introduced into Europe by Spaniards, not a single one by Englishmen. Indian corn, potato, tobacco, and a host of American fruits were carefully nurtured, shipped across the ocean at a time when such transportation was inconceivably slow and difficult, and transplanted in Europe by the Spaniards. . . .

Perhaps the most telling example of acclimatization is the case of the wild turkey, which the Massachusetts settlers found just behind the ocean shore, and which all Americans proceeded to shoot so merrily that it was soon wiped out through ninety-nine hundredths of its original range. But the Spaniards possessed turkeys under domestication by the year 1520. Within the next quarter-century the bird became spread throughout the whole length of the Mediterranean to the Levant. During the reign of Elizabeth it was introduced into England, allegedly from Turkey, whence the name. . . .

In all of Spanish America the methods of preparation and use of these native foods, mingled with the culinary skill of the Mother Country, have resulted in entrancingly different and palatable contributions to the fine art of cookery. Time and patience play a large part, too. No cook can rush in the making of the excellent but quite often intricate dishes which grace the tables of our Spanish American neighbors.

The judicious use of spices, herbs, and

seasonings, more than any other single factor, perhaps, is what gives Spanish American food its distinctive flavor. Chile peppers, of course, of which the number and variety are amazing, are the most ubiquitous ingredient of meat and vegetable dishes. It is a mistake, however, to describe Spanish American food, particularly the Mexican, as "hot." The elusive, pungent flavor of all carefully prepared soups, fish, entrées, and salads so agreeably stimulates one's sense of taste that other more appropriate words come to mind—"piquant", "zestful", "spicy", "rich"—but never, at least to the epicure, merely "hot." It is this discriminating choice of various kinds of chiles and aromatic seasonings which transforms the most commonplace vegetables and meats into something, even the memory of which whets one's appetite anew long after the food has been eaten. Who can forget, once having tasted it, the subtle, delicate flavor of a steak which was rubbed with powdered sage and steeped for two or three hours in lemon juice and sliced onions before being fried in olive oil, as it is sometimes prepared in Mexico?

While there is a general similarity in many of the dishes served throughout Spanish America, each country, and even different regions within each country, adds its own characteristic touch to certain more or less standard recipes. Take *empanadas*, for example. These are turnovers, either baked or fried in deep fat, and are made in all Latin American countries, but their fillings are legion and their size ranges from tiny ones filled with cheese or spicy meat, nut, or fruit mixtures, which make only one good mouthful, as in Panama, the Dominican Republic, and some other countries, to very large ones, like those sometimes served in Bolivia, containing a thick stew of meat and vegetables. A single one of this latter type provides the diner with practically a full meal, and the eating of it, without

knife, fork, or spoon and without spilling any of its contents, is really quite a feat, especially for the amateur who is handling his first *empanada*.

Each country, too, in addition to giving its national and regional characteristics to the general Latin American cuisine, has its own traditional dishes for particular holidays and festivals. Christmas Eve and Christmas, for instance, bring forth special preparations in many countries. In Guatemala, Christmas *tamales* are served—very large ones, "made out of well-ground corn or rice, and turkey with spices, the whole wrapped in plantain



GRINDING CORN FOR TORTILLAS

In Mexico and Central America the tortilla, or flat corn cake, is a universal food. The corn is often ground even now between two stones, as in pre-Conquest days.

leaves and cooked on a bed of great leaves of a particular shrub called *chojoj*. . . ."¹ In Mexico Christmas Eve means a feast of *mole de guajolote* (turkey with *mole* sauce) and the special Christmas Eve salad—a mixed salad with its vegetables and fruits cut exceedingly fine because, as it is naïvely explained, of the smallness and tenderness of the Christ Child whose birth is being celebrated. In Venezuela *hallacas*, a most delectable and elaborate form of *tamales*, are the national Christmas dish. The savoury mixture of corn meal, chicken, pork, vegetables, raisins, olives, and seasonings is wrapped for the boiling process in banana leaves, which give to the finished product their own distinctive flavor. In Honduras *torrijas*, made of slices of plain cake dipped in beaten egg, fried quickly, and then cooked in sirup, are the typical Christmas dessert. In Brazil, *rabanadas*, made of sliced bread prepared somewhat in the manner of French toast and served with sugar and cinnamon, provide the customary finish to Christmas Eve suppers. Probably the most popular Christmas dessert, and certainly the one that is served in the majority of Spanish American countries, is *buñuelos*, a type of sweet doughnut or cruller, sprinkled with sugar and cinnamon or served with honey or sirup.

A recent news item told a story of a popular radio star and actress who, seeking something different to offer her Sunday night guests, ordered a complete Mexican meal to be prepared in one of Mexico City's popular native restaurants and then flown the two thousand miles to New York in time for dinner. All of us cannot follow this method of serving Latin American foods in our own homes, but the cook who wishes to tempt the palates of



Photograph by Rosalie Weinberg

THE MARKET, TOLUCA, MEXICO

Before the arrival of Cortés, corn, tomatoes, peppers and many other vegetables were offered in the Mexican markets.

family or friends with something new, tasty, and different, can easily try some recipes in her own kitchen. For this reason a few recipes are given which will; it is hoped, help the family cook to put a new dress on some of our old familiar foods.

SOPA DE ALBÓNDIGAS (Costa Rica) (Meat Ball Soup)

2 qts. beef broth
1½ lbs. chopped beef
2 onions, chopped fine
2 eggs
Marjoram
Salt and pepper
Flour or cornmeal

¹ Lilly de Jongh Osborne, "Eating One's Way Through the Year in Guatemala", *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, April 1935, p. 314.

NEW WORLD
FOOD PLANTS

THESE FOOD PLANTS
WERE BASIC TO THE
EARLY NEW WORLD
CIVILIZATIONS.

THEY WERE
UNKNOWN IN THE
OLD WORLD
BEFORE 1492.

BOTANICAL MUSEUM
HARVARD UNIVERSITY



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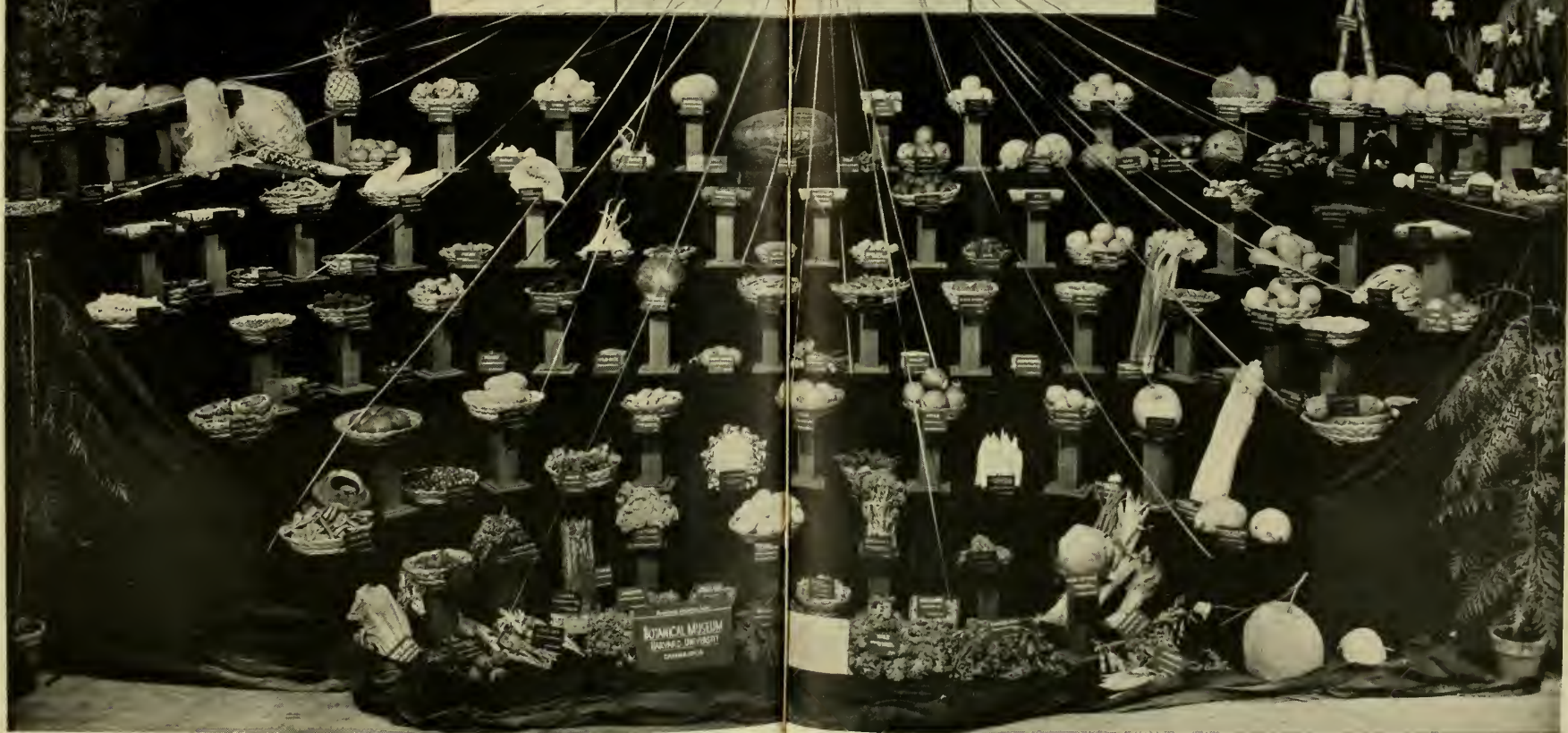


EXHIBIT OF THE BOTANICAL MUSEUM OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY, SPRING FLOWER SHOW OF THE MASSACHUSETTS HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY
(See page 30 for list.)

Mix together meat, eggs, onions, and seasonings. Form into small balls, roll in the flour or cornmeal. Heat broth to boiling point, drop in the meat balls, and cook over a slow fire until done.

ASADO VENEZOLANA (Pot Roast)

2 lbs. rump beef
 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. ham
 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. bacon
 2 onions
 4 tomatoes
 2 green peppers
 2 whole pimientos
 1 tsp. garlic salt or 1 clove garlic
 Pinch of cumin-seed

Slit beef and stuff with ham and bacon, minced; sear until browned on all sides. Add finely chopped onions, tomatoes, green peppers, pimientos, garlic, and cumin-seed, and let simmer until tender. Add 2 teaspoons bouquet sauce before serving.

STEAK AND ONIONS (Mexico)

1 medium thick slice of sirloin steak
 3 onions, sliced
 Lemon juice
 Powdered sage
 Salt and pepper

Cut the steak into pieces for serving. Dredge each piece lightly on both sides with powdered sage. Place steak and sliced onions in alternate layers in a deep dish, with a liberal quantity of lemon juice squeezed over each piece of steak. Cover tightly and let stand in refrigerator 2 or 3 hours before frying in olive oil. Season with salt and pepper before serving. The onions may or may not be fried with the steak, according to preference.

RICE A LA GUATEMALA

Wash the rice well and let it dry. Put a lump of fat into a frying pan; when hot fry

several pieces of onion and some pieces of tomato. When this is all very hot, drop the rice into it and let it brown, stirring to avoid burning, and then cover it with stock or boiling water. Set the pan on a low fire to simmer until the liquid has been completely absorbed. If a fork proves the rice still to be hard, repeat the hot water or stock until the rice is soft enough to eat, but be careful not to stir the rice while it is simmering or it will become a spongy mass.

This rice is good when browned in the oven after the above cooking, or when plenty of tomatoes are added to left-over rice, which is then browned in a baking dish with a bit of grated cheese over the top. It may also be well mixed with cooked chicken, pimientos, red peppers, and hard-boiled eggs, and garnished with parsley, red peppers, and capers, with a little cream cheese sprinkled over the top.

GREEN BEANS (Uruguay)

Wash the beans well and either break into small pieces or shred them. Boil quickly in salted water in an uncovered pan. When tender, wash the beans twice in cold water. Then turn them into a frying pan with butter, salt, pepper, and a tablespoon of minced parsley, and cook over a brisk fire for about 10 minutes. Sprinkle with lemon juice before serving.

EMPANADAS DE QUESO (Bolivia) (Cheese Turnovers)

$1\frac{1}{4}$ cups flour
 2 tbsps. melted lard
 Tepid salted water
 1 cup thin white sauce
 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. cheese, diced
 Deep fat

Mix flour, melted lard, and enough tepid salted water to make soft dough. Roll very thin. Make a thin white sauce, add cheese, and cook until blended. Cool the



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CHILE LIKES ITS VITAMIN B

Water added to a few spoonfuls of flour made from roasted wheat is a favorite summer beverage in Chile. The Araucanian Indian girl pouring the *agua con harina* wears her native costume.

cheese mixture; then put a spoonful on rounds of the dough (cut with a good-sized cookie cutter). Fold over, press edges together, and fry in hot deep fat.

ENSALADA DE GUACAMOLE (Mexico)
(Guacamole Salad)

- 2 avocados
- 2 hard-boiled eggs
- 6 stuffed olives
- 3 small tomatoes
- 1 small onion

French dressing

Fresh chile pepper or chile powder

Dice the avocados, tomatoes, and eggs; slice olives and mince the onion. Combine with enough French dressing to moisten. Season with salt and chile pepper or powder to taste. Serve on lettuce with additional French dressing and, if desired, slices of crisp bacon.

BUÑUELOS (Argentina)
(Fritters)

- 2½ oz. butter
- ⅔ cup sugar
- 3 eggs, well beaten
- Grated rind of 1 lemon
- 1 cup water
- Flour

Mix butter, sugar, and lemon rind well together. Add eggs, water and enough flour to make a soft dough. Spread the dough out on a kneading board and cut off small pieces. Drop in deep fat, which must not be too hot. When brown, remove and drain on paper. Serve sprinkled with powdered sugar.

ICED BRAZILIAN CHOCOLATE

- 2 squares bitter chocolate
- 4 tbsp. sugar
- 1 cup strong coffee
- 4 cups milk

Melt chocolate over hot water or very low heat and when melted, add the sugar. Add coffee gradually while stirring and while coffee and chocolate are still hot. Scald milk and combine it with the coffee mixture, then cook for ten minutes or until mixture is smooth. Chill in refrigerator and when ready to serve, ice cream or ice cubes may be added. A spoonful of sweetened whipped cream may be placed on top.

LIST OF THE PLANT PRODUCTS EXHIBITED AT THE 1939 SPRING FLOWER SHOW OF
THE MASSACHUSETTS HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY, BY THE BOTANICAL MUSEUM
OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY

(Courtesy of Dr. Paul A. Vestal, Research Curator, Botanical Museum of Harvard University)

COMMON NAME	SCIENTIFIC NAME	PROBABLE PLACE OF ORIGIN
Almond (Sweet)	<i>Prunus amygdalus</i> var. <i>dulcis</i> DC.	Mediterranean region
Apple	<i>Pyrus malus</i> L.	Temperate Europe and Asia
Artichoke (Globe)	<i>Cynara scolymus</i> L.	Mediterranean region
Artichoke (Jerusalem)	<i>Helianthus tuberosus</i> L.	North America
Asparagus	<i>Asparagus officinalis</i> L.	Mediterranean region
Avocado	<i>Persea americana</i> Mill.	Tropical America
Arrowhead	<i>Sagittaria sagittifolia</i> L.	Southeastern Asia
Akee-nut	<i>Blighia sapida</i> Koen.	Tropical Africa
Banana	<i>Musa paradisaica</i> subsp. <i>sapientum</i> (L.) O. Ktze.	Southeastern Asia
Barley	<i>Hordeum vulgare</i> L.	Southwestern Asia
Bean (Common)	<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i> L.	South and Central America
Bean (Soja)	<i>Glycine Soja</i> (L.) Sieb. & Zucc.	Northeastern Asia
Bean (Hyacinth)	<i>Dolichos Lablab</i> L.	Southeastern Asia
Bean (Scarlet Runner)	<i>Phaseolus multiflorus</i> Willd.	Central America
Bean (Broad)	<i>Vicia Faba</i> L.	Mediterranean region
Bean (Lima)	<i>Phaseolus lunatus</i> L.	South America
Bean (Mung)	<i>Phaseolus aureus</i> Roxb.	Southeastern Asia
Beet (Garden)	<i>Beta vulgaris</i> L.	Mediterranean region
Brazil nut	<i>Bertholletia excelsa</i> Humb. & Bonp.	Tropical South America
Broccoli	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>botrytis</i> L.	Europe
Brussels sprouts	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>gemmifera</i> Zenk.	Europe
Buckwheat	<i>Fagopyrum esculentum</i> Moench.	East Central Asia
Butternut	<i>Juglans cinerea</i> L.	Eastern North America
Cabbage	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>capitata</i> L.	Europe
Cabbage (Chinese)	<i>Brassica chinensis</i> L.	Eastern Asia
Carob, St. John's Bread	<i>Ceratonia siliqua</i> L.	Southwestern Asia
Carrot	<i>Daucus carota</i> L.	Mediterranean Region
Cashew	<i>Anacardium occidentale</i> L.	Tropical America
Cauliflower	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>botrytis</i> L.	Europe
Celery	<i>Apium graveolens</i> L.	Temperate Europe
Corn (Maize)	<i>Zea Mays</i> L.	{ Eastern South America Central America
Corn (Dent)	<i>Zea Mays</i> var. <i>indentata</i> (Sturt.) Bailey	"
Corn (Flint)	<i>Zea Mays</i> var. <i>indurata</i> (Sturt.) Bailey	"
Corn (Popcorn)	<i>Zea Mays</i> var. <i>praecox</i> Bonaf.	"
Corn (Sweet)	<i>Zea Mays</i> var. <i>rugosa</i> Bonaf.	"
Corn (Soft)	<i>Zea Mays</i> var. <i>erythrolepis</i> (Bonaf.) Alef.	"
Chestnut (European)	<i>Castanea sativa</i> Mill.	Southern Europe.
Chicory	<i>Cichorium intybus</i> L.	Temperate Eurasia
Chives	<i>Allium schoenoprasum</i> L.	Mediterranean region
Cacao	<i>Theobroma cacao</i> L.	Tropical America
Coconut	<i>Cocos nucifera</i> L.	Southeastern Asia
Coffee	<i>Coffea arabica</i> L.	Northeastern Africa
Cola	<i>Cola nitida</i> (Vent.) Chev.	Africa (tropical)

Cowpea	<i>Vigna sinensis</i> (L.) Sovi.	Southeastern Asia
Cranberry	<i>Vaccinium macrocarpon</i> Ait.	Northeastern North America
Cucumber	<i>Cucumis sativus</i> L.	Southeastern Asia
Coconut (Dwarf Golden)	<i>Cocos nucifera</i> L.	Southeastern Asia, Malaysia
Dandelion	<i>Taraxacum officinale</i> Weber.	Temperate Eurasia
Dasheen	<i>Colocasia esculenta</i> (L.) Schott.	Southeastern Asia
Date	<i>Phoenix dactylifera</i> L.	South Central Asia
Eggplant	<i>Solanum melongena</i> L.	Southeastern Asia
Escarole	<i>Chicorium Endivia</i> L.	Southeastern Asia
Fig	<i>Ficus carica</i> L.	Southwestern Asia
Garlic	<i>Allium sativum</i> L.	Southern Europe
Grapefruit	<i>Citrus maxima</i> var. <i>uvarupa</i> Merr. & Lee.	Southeastern Asia
Grapes (European)	<i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.	Southwestern Asia
Hickory (Shagbark)	<i>Carya ovata</i> (Mill.) Koch.	Eastern North America
Job's Tears	<i>Coix lachryma-jobi</i> L.	Southeastern Asia
Kale	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. <i>acephala</i> DC.	Europe
Kumquat	<i>Fortunella margarita</i> (Lour.) Sw.	Southeastern Asia
Lemon (Citron)	<i>Citrus medica</i> L.	Horticultural form
Leek	<i>Allium porrum</i> L.	Southwestern Asia
Lemon	<i>Citrus limonia</i> Osbeck.	Southeastern Asia
Lemon (Ponderosa)	<i>Citrus limonia</i> var. <i>ponderosa</i> Hort.	Hybrid
Lentil	<i>Lens esculenta</i> Moench.	Southwestern Asia
Lettuce	<i>Lactuca sativa</i> L.	Southern Europe
Lettuce (Head)	<i>Lactuca sativa</i> var. <i>capitata</i> L.	Mediterranean region
Lettuce (Romaine-Cos)	<i>Lactuca sativa</i> var. <i>longifolia</i> Lam.	Mediterranean region
Lime	<i>Citrus aurantifolia</i> (Cr.) Sw.	Southeastern Asia
Litchi	<i>Litchi chinensis</i> Sonn.	Southeastern Asia
Lotus Rhizome	<i>Nelumbium nelumbo</i> (L.) Druce.	Southeastern Asia
Melon	<i>Cucumis melo</i> L.	Southeastern Asia
Mockernut	<i>Carya alba</i> K. Koch.	Eastern North America
Mushroom	<i>Agaricus campestris</i> L.	Temperate regions of the world
Nectarine	<i>Prunus persica</i> var. <i>nectarina</i> (Ait.) Maxim. (a bud variation of the peach)	Southeastern Asia
Oats	<i>Avena sativa</i> L.	Southwestern Asia, Eastern Europe
Okra	<i>Hibiscus esculentus</i> L.	Tropical Africa
Onion	<i>Allium cepa</i> L.	Southwestern Asia
Orange (Sweet)	<i>Citrus sinensis</i> (L.) Osbeck.	Southeastern Asia
Orange (King)	<i>Citrus nobilis</i> Lour.	Southeastern Asia
Orange (Seville)	<i>Citrus Aurantium</i> L.	Southeastern Asia
Orange (Temple)	<i>Citrus</i> spp.	Hybrid
Orange (Calamodin)	<i>Citrus mitis</i> Balnco.	Southeastern Asia
Orange (Kafir)	<i>Strychnos spinosa</i> Lam.	East Africa
Papaya	<i>Carica papaya</i> L.	Tropical America
Paradise Nut	<i>Lecythis zabuajo</i> Aubl.	South America
Pea (Common)	<i>Pisum sativum</i> L.	Southeastern Europe
Peach	<i>Prunus persica</i> (L.) Sieb. & Zucc.	Eastern Asia
Peanut	<i>Arachis hypogaea</i> L.	South America (Brazil)
Pear	<i>Pyrus communis</i> L.	Europe & adjacent Asia
Pecan	<i>Carya pecan</i> (Marsh.) Eng. & Graeb.	Central North America
Pepper (Sweet)	<i>Capsicum frutescens</i> var. <i>grossum</i> (L.) Bailey	Tropical America
Pineapple	<i>Ananas comosus</i> (L.) Merr.	Tropical America

Pine Nuts (American).....	<i>Pinus edulis</i> Engelm.....	Rocky Mountains
Pignut.....	<i>Carya glabra</i> (Mill.) Sweet.....	Eastern North America
Plum (European).....	<i>Prunus domestica</i> L.....	Southwestern Asia
Potato (White).....	<i>Solanum tuberosum</i> L.....	Western South America
Potato (Sweet).....	<i>Ipomoea batatas</i> (L.) Poir.....	Tropical America
Pili Nut.....	<i>Canarium ovatum</i> Engl.....	Southeastern Asia
Pistachio.....	<i>Pistacia vera</i> L.....	Southwestern Asia
Parsnip.....	<i>Pastinaca sativa</i> L.....	Europe
Pummelo.....	<i>Citrus maxima</i> (Burm.) Merr.....	Southeastern Asia
Radish.....	<i>Raphanus sativus</i> L.....	Eurasia
Radish (Black).....	<i>Raphanus sativus</i> L.....	Eurasia
Rhubarb (Garden).....	<i>Rheum rhabonticum</i> L.....	Southeastern Asia
Rice.....	<i>Oryza sativa</i> L.....	Southeastern Asia
Rice (Wild).....	<i>Zizania aquatica</i> L.....	North America
Rutabaga.....	<i>Brassica napobrassica</i> (L.) Mill.....	Europe
Rye.....	<i>Secale cereale</i> L.....	Central Eurasia
Sorghum.....	<i>Sorghum officinarum</i> L.....	Southeastern Asia
Spinach.....	<i>Spinacia oleracea</i> L.....	Southwestern Asia
Squash (Summer).....	<i>Cucurbita pepo</i> L.....	Central America
Squash (Winter).....	<i>Cucurbita maxima</i> Duchesne.....	South and Central America
Strawberry (Cultivated).....	<i>Fragaria</i> spp. (Hybrid origin).....	Western South America and
	<i>F. chilensis</i> (L.) Duchesne.....	Eastern North America
	<i>F. virginiana</i> Duchesne.....	
Sugarcane.....	<i>Saccharum officinarum</i> L.....	Southeastern Asia
Sunflower.....	<i>Helianthus annuus</i> L.....	North America
Sugar Maple.....	<i>Acer saccharum</i> Marsh.....	Northeastern North America
Tangelo.....	<i>Citrus</i> spp.....	Hybrid origin
Tangerine.....	<i>Citrus nobilis</i> var. <i>deliciosa</i> (Ten.) Swingle.....	Southeastern Asia
Taro.....	<i>Colocasia esculenta</i> (L.) Schott.....	Southeastern Asia
Tea.....	<i>Camellia sinensis</i> (L.) Ktze.....	Southeastern Asia
Tomato.....	<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i> Mill.....	South and Central America
Turnip.....	<i>Brassica rapa</i> L.....	Europe
Tamarind.....	<i>Tamarindus indica</i> L.....	Southeastern Asia
Walnut (English).....	<i>Juglans regia</i> L.....	Southwestern Asia (Persia)
Walnut (Black).....	<i>Juglans nigra</i> L.....	Eastern North America
Watercress.....	<i>Rorippa nasturtium-aquaticum</i> (L.) Hayk.....	Europe
Watermelon.....	<i>Citrullus vulgaris</i> Schrad.....	Tropical Africa
Water Chestnut.....	<i>Eleocharis dulcis</i> (Burm. f.) Trin. ex Rumph.....	Southeastern Asia
Yam.....	<i>Dioscoria alata</i> L.....	Southeastern Asia

Women of America

With this essay, the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union initiates a series of biographies of women of America, in accordance with the following resolution:

WHEREAS:

A knowledge of the most distinguished women of the twenty-one American Republics is necessary in order to do them historical justice, and to stimulate by their example the women of the New World,

The Eighth International Conference of American States

RECOMMENDS

That the Pan American Union publish biographies of the American women who have distinguished themselves outstandingly by their social, economic, political, scientific, literary or artistic achievements.

These biographies will appear in the order in which they are received from the representatives of the respective countries on the Inter-American Commission of Women.

I. POLICARPA SALAVARRIETA (COLOMBIA)

MARÍA CURREA DE AYA

Colombian Representative on the Inter-American Commission of Women

FROM July 20, 1810 onward, the natives of New Granada, weary of enduring Spanish tyranny, began to organize armies and to undertake a determined and bloody struggle. One of the many enthusiasts for the patriots' cause was Joaquín Salavarrieta, a Spanish Basque whose surname in the Basque tongue means "House of Beautiful Columns." His parents were Don Francisco Salavarrieta and Doña Eulalia Morales. He married Doña Mariana Ríos, the daughter of Don Francisco Ríos and Doña Bárbara Chamorro, who was of pure Spanish lineage like himself.

We do not know what ambitions, what circumstances or desires moved Joaquín and Mariana to make their home first in the flourishing city of Mariquita and then in Guaduas, a small tropical town where the single street was bordered with humble thatched houses, hidden under the shade of oranges and *guaduas*, the

American bamboo which so gracefully sways at every impulse of the wind and which has given its name to the town.

There, in a household where the traditions and customs of faraway Spain were kept intact, Policarpa was born on January 26, 1795, and was baptized with the name of one of her Spanish grandmothers. She was one of seven children who, like so many other Spaniards born in the New World, as they grew up felt the desire to free their land from Spanish domination. Policarpa, who was known as "La Pola", passionately embraced the cause of the patriots, and efficiently helped them by carrying messages between the army camps. Already a woman grown, she persuaded many, with her facility of speech and the charm of her race, to take up arms and join the rebels.

In 1816 the Viceroy Sámano resolved to suppress the revolutionary movement with an iron hand. In that year the



POLICARPA SALAVARRIETA

Salavarrieta family went to Santa Fe de Bogotá and Pola, still in communication with the patriots, took advantage of the fact that she was little known in the city to continue her services as courier, accompanied by one of her brothers. On foot and on horseback she used numberless subterfuges and disguises and for a time successfully avoided falling into the enemy's power. She was tall, dark, slender, with large black eyes and a fine provocative mouth; and her wit and intelligence drew the admiration of all who knew her.

A valiant revolutionary, also tall and dark, of Spanish ancestry, fell deeply in love with her and asked her to be his wife. His name was Alejo Sabarain and La Pola returned his love. But she would not be married until after the victory of the patriot cause. It was a fleeting, idyllic romance which slipped by in an atmosphere of expectation and of mystery, the two principals knowing the while that they were surrounded by danger and by war, destined to end in tragedy.

Spanish espionage was most active. A certain Iglesia, of whom we know only

that he was a fierce and cruel persecutor of the patriots, was a subaltern, but he was offered promotion to an officer's rank if he could find the society or group which, so cleverly organized, was sending communications to the enemy. He suspected La Pola and pursued her with great determination, but for some time was unable to discover her whereabouts.

It was market day. The hilly streets of Bogotá began to fill with people from the country. At the corner of the house which the Salavarrietas occupied was a shop with a great leathern door and a stone post. There Iglesia hid himself. The wait was not long, for soon there passed the boy who accompanied Policarpa on her trips to the encampments and of whom Iglesia was also suspicious. He was told by the shopkeeper that the boy was La Pola's brother and, following him, discovered where they lived. Later he called guards who surrounded the house; he then notified La Pola that she was a prisoner. She, with her usual keenness, made a sign to her brother to burn all her correspondence, thus preventing the names of patriots and secrets of the revolution from falling into Spanish hands.

Her captors took her to the Colegio del Rosario, then converted into a prison. They told her to denounce her companions, which she loftily refused to do. A few days later they read to her the sentence of the Council of War, signed by the Viceroy Sámano, which condemned her to death, together with eight companions, among them Sabarain, her fiancé. With perfect calmness and serenity she asked that they let her bid him farewell, and that they send a priest to her since she wished to receive the last Sacrament. Then, with a woman's coquetry, she begged the grace of not being clad in penitential sackcloth for her execution, as was the custom of the time.

It was dawn of November 17, 1817. The sun, on rising above the hills of Monserrate, shone upon a row of nine scaffolds in the northwest part of the Plaza Mayor, today known as the Plaza Bolívar. In that time of continual executions, the sorrow of the city was increased by the processions of the condemned who, arrayed in black sackcloth, passed through the principal streets, repeating aloud the prayers of the dying, accompanied by the funereal tolling of a multitude of bells.

La Pola had braided her black hair and, having been given permission not to dress in sackcloth, chose the most beautiful of her blouses and a wide skirt which fell in graceful folds. She covered her head with a black triangular shawl and, erect and with perfect naturalness, as if she were just going for a walk, traversed the distance from the prison to the Plaza Mayor. She spoke to the people who sadly crowded about her path and told them that it was

necessary to continue the struggle for independence; execrating the Spaniards, she asked vengeance for their victims. She mounted the scaffold and from there sent her last farewell to Sabarain. She asked for a ribbon and, with a charming gesture of modesty, she tied it about her full skirts in order that neither the wind nor the convulsions of her death agony might disarrange them. It is said that her last words were: "Indolent people! How different your fate would be if you but knew the price of liberty! But it is not too late! See how I, young and a woman, have more than enough courage to suffer death and yet a thousand deaths—and do not forget this example!"

The sacrifice of La Pola caused great disturbance and grief; the desire for liberty was inflamed anew and the patriots fought with even greater determination to attain it, until the battle of Boyacá brought liberty to the country in 1819.



De la Revista de la Escuela de Bellas Artes, Quito



CIVIC MILITARY INSTITUTE OF CUBA, AT CEIBA DEL AGUA

The Civic-Military Institute of Cuba

AT THE SUGGESTION of Colonel Fulgencio Batista y Zaldívar, Chief of the Constitutional Army of Cuba, the Civic-Military Institute was established by decree of March 30, 1936. The new institution was created to provide home life and a well-rounded education for homeless orphans and children whose fathers' death had resulted directly or indirectly from their work in civil or military life.

Senator Alfredo Hornedo donated 222 acres for the school in the rural district of Ceiba del Agua, about 30 miles southwest of Habana, in the province of the same name. By January 8, 1938, the date of dedication, what had been open country was transformed into an educational insti-

tution with fine buildings, furnished and equipped with the best to be had in classrooms, workshops, dormitories, and hospital. On the 15th, a group of 549 boys and girls arrived from the six provinces of Cuba, and five weeks later, on February 21, the first school term opened, with Dr. Rafael G. Crespo as director.

Through an imposing archway a broad avenue leads to the ellipse in front of the main building. At the right is the stadium with its fine athletic field, track, and grandstand. The school proper consists of a large E-shaped building with administrative offices, post and telegraph offices, museum, library, education and science laboratories, weather bureau, classrooms,

and theater. On either side of the building are the playgrounds, one for boys, the other for girls, equipped with all kinds of gymnastic apparatus, and behind is the drill field, at the end of which are two swimming pools, handball and tennis courts, and a boxing ring. Opposite the pools are the hospital and dispensary, and the agricultural school building.

Facing the drill field are the living quarters, four buildings with a capacity of 800. Each dormitory has its own club room, where the students enjoy their periods of recreation. The two boys' houses are separated from those of the girls by a building containing the dining room, kitchen, refrigerators, and storeroom; close by is a spacious building occupied by the workshops. Near the stadium is the water supply system; water is pumped from a spring on the property to a 100,000 gallon tank.

The Institute has a school of eight grades, followed by four-year courses in domestic science and arts for girls and industrial and agricultural training for boys. Physical education and sports are required.

The school is coeducational throughout, and the principles of the New School, as enunciated at Calais in 1919 by the International Bureau of New Schools of Geneva, are followed. Individual and organized sports are always going on. Excursions, on foot or by bus, are often taken, and prove pleasant and profitable.

In the first three grades special attention is given to child psychology and activity programs, designed to enlarge the child's experience and stimulate an appreciation of nature, cultivate his ability to express himself, and make him an intelligent member of society. The studies in the next three grades are the mother tongue,



A DORMITORY

This is one of the Institute's four pavilions, with space for a total of 200 pupils. Club rooms offer an opportunity for study and recreation.



MACHINE SHOP

natural and social sciences, arithmetic, English, drawing, music, elementary surveying, manual training, physical training, and military drill. The girls study also elementary domestic science, sewing, and dressmaking. The upper grades are divided into two sections. The first is devoted to general studies, including Spanish, arithmetic, some geometry, algebra, and economics, social and natural sciences, hygiene, and child care. The second provides pre-vocational studies: courses in stenography and typing, office practice, bookkeeping, music, manual training, graphic arts, penmanship, drafting, and free-hand drawing.

The domestic science department for girls was established to enable the girls not only to be competent homemakers, but also to earn their own living, if necessary. The classes are held on the ground floor of the main building, in especially equipped rooms. They include sewing, dressmak-

ing, and designing; laundering; cooking; child care; and home nursing.

The department of vocational and agricultural training has adopted as its motto: "Let us dignify labor as the solid foundation for the greatness of nations." Courses in this department start in the seventh and eighth grades with prevocational studies; at the end of these two years, a student's ability to learn a trade or craft can be readily determined. The department has a spacious building of its own in which are the electrical and radio workshop and electric plant; foundry; forge; printing office and bookbinding equipment; carpentry shop; paint shop; laundry; creamery; bakery; industrial chemistry laboratory; and facilities for testing materials, shoemaking, and leather- and metalwork.

The strictly technical and vocational subjects are begun in the ninth year, and taken by all students over fourteen who



A CLASS IN PRACTICAL AGRICULTURE

have finished grammar school. In this year the aptitudes shown by the students in the seventh and eighth grades are tested and checked, so that in the tenth year more intensive training can be begun, with theoretical studies to supplement the practical work for those showing capacity to profit by it. The last two years are spent in perfecting students in the field chosen.

The workshops not only are educational in character, but some of them also supply the practical needs of the student body. For example, more than 20,000 pieces pass through the laundry every month, and in the shoeshop all the footwear used by the students is made.

Special courses in silkworm culture are featured in a separate building, whose furniture and fixtures, as well as the spinning machinery, reels, bobbins, etc., were made in the school workshops. The scientific apparatus and incubation and refrigeration

equipment were ordered from abroad.

Adjoining the building is a field where 15,000 mulberry trees, of six varieties, have been planted, to teach the students the proper care of the trees and to provide leaves for the silkworms. Incidental to the educational purpose of this project is the large-scale production of cocoons. There are two additional nurseries where plants are grown for distribution to interested persons. They are given information gratis, and may call upon the technical director freely for aid and advice. In several magazines published for the national forces and the general public, and in many newspapers of Habana, a campaign for increased silkworm culture is being waged. The school expects to provide a large group of trained silkworm growers, who will help introduce this subject in rural schools throughout the republic.

The section of agriculture began by planting some five and a half acres to crops appropriate to the season. Fruit trees have been set out, and a truck garden will supply the needs of the institution. If possible, an irrigation system will be put in, and modern gardening tools and machinery purchased.

The commercial school is equipped with the latest educational and office equipment to train boys and girls who show promise of succeeding in business positions. Besides teaching stenography, shorthand, and bookkeeping, the school has special courses for those planning to be customs agents, bank employees, secretaries, cashiers, commercial agents, salesmen, etc. The courses are conducted as though the students were really employed.

The weather bureau of the Institute was

designed chiefly as an aid to agriculture. Laboratory apparatus was installed in August 1937, and the bureau was functioning before the rest of the school was in operation. The equipment includes a fine equatorial telescope for astronomical observations, and maps and celestial spheres for the study of the heavens.

The physical education department, besides looking after the physical development of the students, endeavors to instill punctuality, obedience, order, a sense of responsibility, and other character traits. The students lead regular lives and take exercise daily; they are given periodical physical examinations and training in posture and health habits, and are trained in appreciation of the truth and respect for the rights of others. Besides providing healthful recreation and team work,



CENTRAL LIBRARY

sports teach an appreciation of fair play and the sportsmanlike way of winning and losing.

The physical education courses for the upper classes are based on the modern belief that the intellectual, moral, and physical aspects of education are inseparable; that the cultivation of any one of them apart from the others might be considered instructive, but by no means educational. Emphasis is put on baseball, soft ball, track, swimming, and handball, with the practical purpose of "making strong in order to make useful."

The natural history museum, named for the Cuban naturalist Carlos de la Torre y Huerta, has spacious, well ventilated and lighted quarters, which will eventually contain all the specimens necessary for the

study of the natural sciences. An integral part of the museum is the adjoining taxidermy workshop, equipped with the most modern material for repairing and preserving the specimens and mounting new ones to complete the collection. Classes in taxidermy are also offered to students interested in learning this craft as a supplement to their studies.

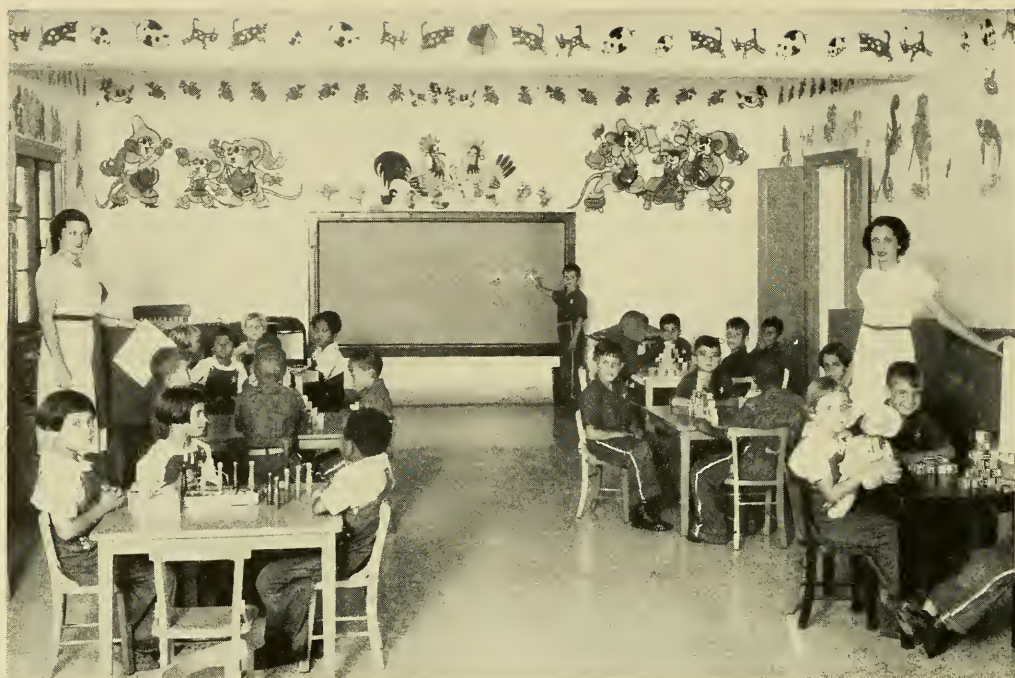
The library, containing some 5,000 volumes, is open to students, teachers, and all employees of the school. Special collections are prepared for class room use and for the teachers. In addition to its books, the library owns many valuable historical documents, the nucleus of the Cuban historical museum being organized there.

The theater, a fine auditorium with a seating capacity of 1,400, occupies the



ONE OF THE SWIMMING POOLS

Physical education occupies an important place in education at the Institute.



KINDERGARTEN



MEDICAL EXAMINATION OF THE PUPILS

Health receives much attention.

middle wing of the central building. A motion picture projector of the latest type has been installed, and twice a week carefully selected films are shown. All official ceremonies, concerts, lectures, and social gatherings are also held there.

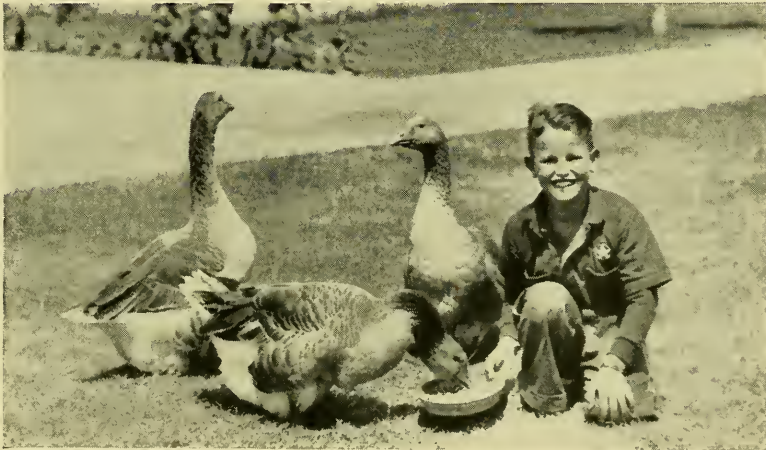
The medical staff of the Institute cares for the health of the children by prevention as well as cure. Health and hygiene therefore occupy much of the staff; the hospital and dispensary provide treatment for the sick, and inoculation and vaccination against various diseases. All employees of the Institute who so desire may avail themselves of the services of the dispensary for any ailment requiring medical or surgical attention. The hospital contains a pharmacy; laboratory; dental office; consulting, treatment and minor surgery rooms; air-conditioned operating room; X-ray cabinet; post-operative ward; and special rooms for the examination of eyes, ears, nose, and throat.

The Institute has an annex on the sea-

shore near Miramar, on the outskirts of Habana. A playground with a capacity of 5,000 children has been established, and all students at the Institute, as well as the protégés of certain welfare organizations, are free to make use of it. Beyond the great central pavilion with dressing-rooms, lockers, dispensary, etc., are tennis and volley ball courts, and on the beach equipment for various games for the younger visitors. Children under eight swim in a pool built 100 feet inland, and the others in the ocean, where protection against the surf and dangerous fish has been provided.

The students publish a magazine, *Flor Martiana*, named for the Apostle of Cuban Independence, José Martí. Already many of the boys and girls have shown promise in the field of letters.

The Institute may well be described in the words of Martí: "Everything has already been said, but whenever anything is sincere, it is new."



FEEDING THE GEESSE

Coffee Plastic

A New Achievement of Science

COFFEE TO DRINK or use as a flavoring is familiar to every one, and indeed has been so for several centuries, but coffee to wear, walk on, or look at in the walls of one's home—that is new. These and other non-beverage uses are now possible through the development of a process to convert surplus and poor quality coffee into a molding powder for a new thermo-setting plastic.

"The Age of Plastics" is a phrase currently used to describe the period in which we are living. While the use of plastics is as old as man's knowledge of such natural products as pitch and rosin, the development of synthetic plastics by chemistry is less than a hundred years old. And it was only ten years ago that many synthetic plastics now in common use began their spectacular rise to popularity, as attested by the fact that their use increased more than 1,000 percent in the period 1929–1933.

Many of these plastics were discovered as the result of research to develop some way of utilizing hitherto discarded by-products. So successful were these efforts that in some cases waste was found to be the source of chemicals more important than the original material. With nightmare surpluses continuing to haunt the dreams of coffee planters and traders, scientists all over the world have been studying with increasing interest the chemical possibilities of the product, in order to turn the huge unsalable stocks into an industrial asset. The recent announcement that the

H. S. Polin Laboratory has developed a plastic product from green coffee, suitable for a variety of commercial uses, may solve the surplus problem and change the whole aspect of the coffee industry. One 132-pound bag of coffee—of which Brazil has destroyed 66 millions—is reported to produce 40 square feet of plastic half an inch thick and approximately 1.25 gallons of coffee oil from which various chemical and pharmaceutical products can be manufactured.

The new plastic is a coordinate type of resin—that is, a combination resinous compound is obtained by a catalytic process. It may be technically described as "the product of the reaction of extracted and reintroduced chemical constituents of the coffee, particularly the tannins, aldehydes, hydroxy compounds, and the various complex nitrogenous entities." It is made from green coffee, and is therefore completely odorless. As any grade of coffee may be used, and it makes no difference whether the beans are whole or broken, it is very possible that in the future coffee drinkers will have only the very choicest quality offered them, for there will be no inducement to market inferior grades for beverage purposes.

The process is relatively simple and inexpensive, for from the bean may be obtained all the bulk, plasticizers, and dyes necessary, without the introduction of any foreign matter. The beans are ground, and the coffee oil and other chemical constituents extracted, leaving a liquid known as the extraction product. By reintroducing portions of the extraction

Based on material published by "The Spice Mill" for May, 1939, and information received from the H. S. Polin Laboratory of research in physics.—EDITOR.

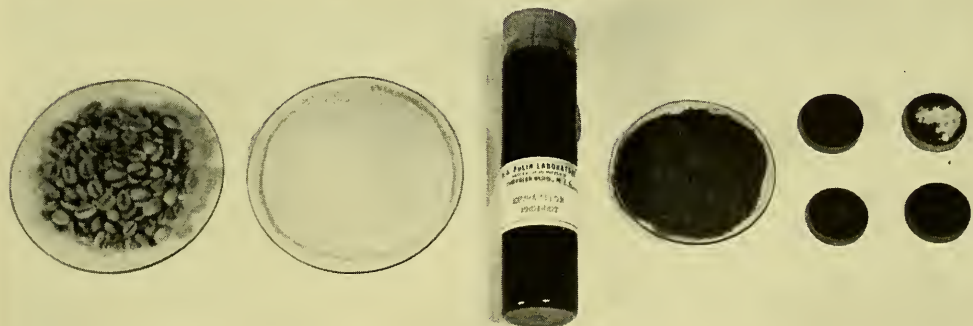
product into the ground coffee under conditions maintained in a sealed reaction chamber, a powder, which is the plastic compound, results. The powder is molded in the desired form in a plastic press. Coffee plastic can be produced in any color by treatment of its natural pigments, and in nearly any degree of translucency or opacity—absolute transparency has not yet been obtained. Graining and marbled effects are achieved by varying the reaction treatment.

Scientists have learned that both thermoplastic and thermo-setting types of plastic may be produced, but at present the physical characteristics of the latter only have been determined. Its molding pressure is 2,000–5,000 pounds per square inch; its specific gravity is 1.43; its water resistance (absorption by weight in 24 hours' complete immersion at 250° C.) is 0.2 percent; its electrical properties (low frequency) are very good; and its resistance

to weak acids, to alkalis, to ketones, hydrocarbons, oils, fruit acids, etc. and to flame conductivity is good.

The uses of the new material are many, and of particular importance to coffee-producing countries where the high cost of imported plastics has limited their use. Some of the practical purposes already apparent are: flooring; roofing; plastic products (novelties, buttons, moulded products, both colored and uncolored); wall board; trim; insulating material, against heat and in electrical appliances; and acoustic material.

An important byproduct of coffee plastic is coffee oil, and experiments are being carried out to discover possible commercial uses for it. So far it has been ascertained that it may be used as a mixing oil for paints, etc.; for fertilizer and bacterial growth agencies; as a source of vitamin D; in insecticides; for medicinal purposes; and in soaps.



Courtesy of H. S. Polin Laboratory

STEPS IN THE MANUFACTURE OF COFFEE PLASTIC

From left to right: (1) Coffee beans in their natural state, (2) powdered coffee after the extraction of the oil and other chemical constituents, (3) the extracted product, (4) the plastic composition resulting from the reintroduction of some of the extracted product into the powdered coffee in a closed reaction chamber, (5) tablets obtained by compressing the powder in (4). The marbled appearance of two of the tablets is obtained by varying what is reintroduced. The manufacture of plastic from coffee is especially notable in that it requires no element not derived from the coffee itself.



THE BANK OF THE REPUBLIC, MONTEVIDEO
Founded in 1896, the Bank makes itself useful to the country at large.

Uruguay: A Social Laboratory

IF YOU LOOK at the map of South America, the Republic of Uruguay seems very small in comparison with its enormous neighbor, Brazil. In fact, it is somewhat less than the size of Nebraska, but still four and a half times as large as Switzerland. Its population of 2,082,000 has the advantage of being extremely homogeneous, since it is 98 per cent of European extraction. Both men and women vote and the level of literacy is good.

Uruguay is a well-watered country of rolling hills, on which pasture thousands of sheep, its chief wealth. It has a long coast line, bathed by the Atlantic and the Río de la Plata. This fortunate circumstance provides it with one of its chief attractions and an excellent source of revenue, for the beautiful beaches on the ocean and wide river are visited every year by many more than a hundred thousand foreigners. Argentines and Brazilians are especially fond of Uruguayan resorts and many cruise boats from the United States arrive at the height of the Uruguayan summer which, of course, is winter in the northern hemisphere.

Suppose that you are disembarking from the steamer at Montevideo, an up-to-date and enterprising city somewhat larger than Washington. Your boat will be moored alongside a pier and you will step directly from the gangplank onto Uruguayan soil. Near by you will see huge electric cranes removing the cargo from your vessel and

from many other large ships. The port is operated by the Uruguayan Government, as is the plant furnishing electric power. The stevedores who help load and unload are also entirely controlled by the Government. The fishing boats that you may have seen as you were coming into the harbor are very likely those of a government agency which some years ago undertook to supply the markets with quantities of this cheap and healthful food.

From this you will deduce that Uruguay is a country in which government in industry is a matter-of-fact part of daily life. Indeed, the Government has owned and operated various important enterprises since 1896, when it founded the Bank of the Republic, and every now and then since, Congress has started a new government business or expanded an old one, as circumstances seemed to demand.

As you leave the wharf for the central section of town, you will pass through the narrow streets of the old section of the city, which was established in 1726. A trifle aside from your direct route is the colonial Plaza de Zabala, commemorating the founder of the city, and not far from it an imposing gray granite building. A stranger in Uruguay, stopping in front of it, inquired of a passerby what it was. "It's the Bank of the Republic," he replied enthusiastically. "There isn't another to equal it in the world!" His admiration seemed justified by a visit to the interior which, like the capitol on the other side of the city, is richly adorned with many of the handsome Uruguayan marbles.

The importance of the Bank of the Republic, however, does not reside in its architectural features. It is a bank which is at the service of the country. Acting as

In the preparation of this article extensive use, not only in the cases especially cited but throughout, has been made of Utopia in Uruguay, Chapters in the Economic History of Uruguay, by Simon G. Hanson, New York, 1938. The reader is referred to this well documented and thoughtful book for a full discussion and evaluation of the subjects herein mentioned. The data cited for 1937 and 1938 are from Uruguayan official sources.—EDITOR.

it does as the sole bank of emission, it also performs all the other usual functions of a bank, at low rates. Furthermore, it operates a very successful savings bank, and has a chain of twenty-two granaries throughout the Republic. These receive for storage many different kinds of grain, of which wheat and linseed are the chief. Some 1,650,000 bushels of the former and 472,000 of the latter were deposited in 1938. Through these granaries the bank is able to help farmers obtain an adequate price for their products, especially since bank branches are located in all the towns where granaries are situated, as well as in others. In Montevideo the bank operates another warehouse, making loans on the wool, hides, rice, and other products stored

therein. It also has charge of all work connected with the maintenance of a minimum price for wheat and the export of this and other products. For last year the bank announced profits of more than 6 million pesos; its balance sheet for the year totaled 561 million pesos. The directors are responsible to the Ministry of Finance but have a large measure of autonomy. The record of the bank through the years has been one of service to the country at large, with considerable sums earned for the nation.

Continuing towards the center of the city, you come to the Plaza de la Constitución, planted with plane-trees that make a welcome shade on the pavement. On one corner is the low colonial Cabildo,



A GLIMPSE OF MONTEVIDEO

In the center background rises the customhouse, near which are the wharves administered by the Government.



A POPULAR URUGUAYAN BEACH

The Government of Uruguay promotes tourist travel through a national commission and through loans for financing hotels at the principal resorts.

now used as the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and on another side, in striking contrast, the tall modernistic building of the Mortgage Bank, another government institution. It was taken over by the Government in 1912, when the public lost confidence in its directors. Like the Bank of the Republic, it is under the supervision of the Ministry of Finance. For the year 1936 this bank made about 25 per cent of all Uruguayan mortgages for an equal proportion of value; in 1930-31 it made 45 per cent for about one third of the value. One of its duties is to facilitate settlement in rural districts. It has been engaged in this work since 1914 and in 1936 had oversight of seventeen so-called colonies, which vary in size from about

1,500 acres to about 18,000, totaling 165,000 acres. Individual holdings average 140 acres and farmers are encouraged to purchase their own land through a down payment of 15 per cent and 30 annual installments. Six agricultural experts are employed to advise the farmers. It may be added here that Uruguay is fortunate in being a country in which 87 per cent of the land is utilizable.¹ The Mortgage Bank also operates a savings fund and is active in financing housing projects. It was hard hit by the depression, since prices for agricultural products suffered severely. The Government had to assist it with special legislation, for many of its mortgagees were in arrears.

¹ *Hanson, op. cit.*

In 1936 the 6 and $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent bonds of the Mortgage Bank, which had in good times a ready sale abroad as well as at home, were refunded at 5 per cent, but in 1938 the Minister of Finance was able to report that the Bank had written mortgages of more than 11.5 million pesos, against 6.5 million the year before, and that its bonds had risen considerably in the market.

Beyond the Plaza de la Constitución you come to the Plaza de la Independencia, which is one of the main centers of the city. From here you may take a bus to almost any part of town. Naturally your first objective will be one of the beaches, the nearest of which may be reached for a very small fare in only fifteen or twenty minutes. Thus the citizens of the capital are able to enjoy water sports,

of which they are passionately fond, as much as do the summer visitors from other countries. Approaching the beaches, you will find large hotels which have been financed through government credits administered by the State Mortgage Bank, and in fact such assistance has been extended to numerous resort hotels farther from the capital. Furthermore, the National Tourist Commission, which is a subdivision of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, exercises a strict oversight of the operation of these hotels, not only as to rates but also as to the service that they provide. The Tourist Commission realizes, however, that tourist travel is not merely a business proposition for, as a distinguished Uruguayan said, it cannot be evaluated by addition and subtraction but really is a running account between



GOVERNMENT HOUSING IN URUGUAY

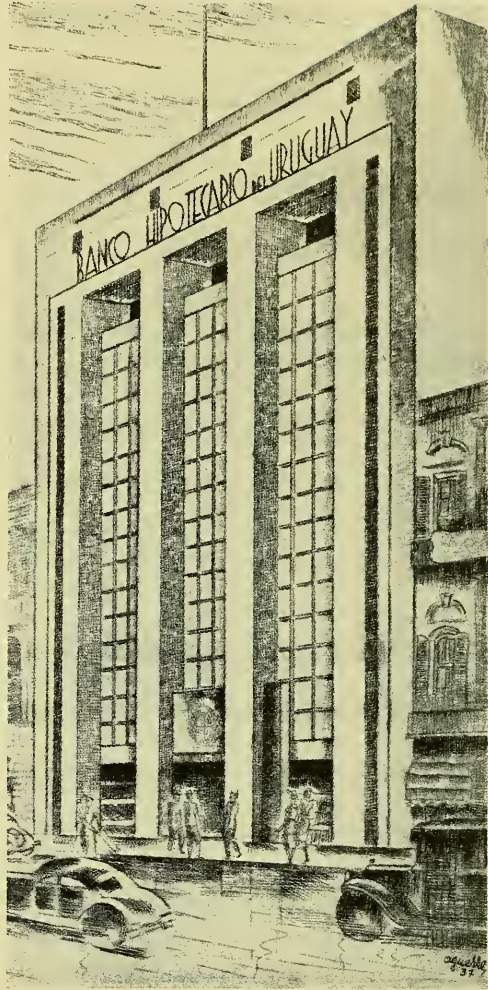
The National Housing Commission has charge of erecting low-cost houses for workers; more than 3,000 were built in 1936.

nations, each of which profits by better acquaintance.

Another bank maintained by the Government is the State Insurance Bank. It began to operate in 1911 with fire, life, and workmen's compensation insurance, and was gradually given greater scope. After 1926 it had a monopoly of all risks, through insurance or reinsurance. but in 1934 industrial accident insurance was transferred to the Fund for Pensions to Workers in Industry, Commerce, and Public Services. In 1937 it finished paying off the bonds to the amount of 3 million pesos which the Government originally issued for its capital. In the same year it received for premiums and reinsurance 6.5 million pesos, an increase of 750,000 pesos over 1936 receipts, and paid out in claims a little more than 2 million pesos. The reserves on December 31, 1937 were almost 19,000,000 pesos. According to Hanson, the State Insurance Bank has been liberal in accepting risks but has not given policy-holders the benefit of the profits that it has made through efficient and energetic management.²

Perhaps you noticed as you were passing through the center of the city a sign saying "Restaurante Popular." This is one of the eating places by means of which the Government is endeavoring to teach the people better food habits. Although the restaurants were first established during the depression to aid the unemployed, a number of them have been retained in different sections. It is interesting to enter and find that the first thing offered is Vitamins A, B, C and D free; that is, lettuce, whole wheat bread and butter. Any patron may repeat these without extra charge. The service is in cafeteria style; the menu is planned to give a balanced meal. Posters around the room offer admonitions as to drinking milk, eating fresh vegetables, and other salutary habits. A large new munici-

² Hanson, *op. cit.*



From "25 Años. Banco Hipotecario del Uruguay, 1912-1937"

STATE MORTGAGE BANK

pal fruit and vegetable market on the outskirts of the city is helping to make available to the residents a constant supply of fresh food. Oranges and grapefruit, many from recently planted groves, are plentiful and other familiar products are to be seen. Small purplish artichokes on their leafy stems, bunched as if in a bouquet, attract the eye of the visitor from a cooler climate.

Driving through the parks for which Montevideo is famous, visiting its noted

rose garden, and continuing through wide avenues towards the Cerro (the slight eminence responsible for the "Monte" in Montevideo), you come to rows of small white houses recently erected by the Government as part of its housing program. The Housing Commission not only builds dwellings for workers in various industries but also erects them for members of various pension systems and will finance the building of houses for those who are buying lots on the instalment plan. Three thousand houses for workers were planned for the Department of Montevideo in 1936 alone. Soldiers of regiments in Montevideo have had dwellings erected for them and the National Administration of Fuel, Alcohol, and Cement is cooperating with the Housing Commission in the erection of 500 houses for its workers.

This Administration, familiarly known in Uruguay as the ANCAP, from the initials of its Spanish name, is one of the most flourishing of the government enterprises. Started in 1932 in order to reduce the price of imported coal and petroleum products, for Uruguay unfortunately has none of its own, it now has a refinery and manufactures alcoholic beverages and alcohol. It is also expected to supply cement for government construction. The sales of ANCAP, which were 9 million pesos in its first year, amounted to 33 million pesos in 1938. Its policy has been to keep the price of fuel as low as possible, and in 1938 it reported that its price for gasoline was lower than that in Buenos Aires. Last year it absorbed more than 1,000,000 pesos which consumers would have had to pay for fuel because of lower exchange rates on Uruguayan currency. Moreover, it added a new unit to its cracking plant, and refined petroleum for private distributors as well as for its own organization.

The largest industrial project that Uru-

guay has on hand today is the construction of a great electric plant on the Río Negro to produce its light and energy by means of waterpower instead of imported fuel. This will provide the country with 700 million KWH per year, or about three times more energy than is at present used. It is hoped to build an industrial city near the dam and power plant at Rincón del Bonete, as well as to transmit the power to all sections of the country. This work was undertaken in 1937 by a German consortium, at a cost stated by President Terra at the time as 46,000,000 pesos, including land expropriated, housing for workers, and other items not included in the German contract. However, only 19,000,000 pesos were to be paid the consortium in Uruguayan currency. The balance for construction was to be paid in pounds sterling, in cash amounting to £933,000, and in credits for Uruguayan wool, meat, hides, and other products totaling £1,265,000. What results the present war will have on the construction contract remain to be seen. One of its provisions calls for completion of the work in 1941.

Just as the dams in the Tennessee Valley affect the rivers there, the dam on the Río Negro will render it navigable for about 370 miles, and by raising the level of water in other rivers and streams will also permit their use by boats. A large lake, which will be formed by the dam, will facilitate the transportation of minerals, including manganese, from nearby sections of the country. All subsoil rights in Uruguay are vested in the Government, and mining, as well as the production of electricity, is under the supervision of the Administración de Usinas Eléctricas y Teléfonos del Estado (UTE).

Montevideo, which was the first city in South America to have electric light, bought its plant in 1896 and the Government acquired a monopoly throughout the



A MODERN SECTION OF THE URUGUAYAN CAPITAL

"Ancap defends the country," reads a large electric sign in the center, referring to this state corporation's activities in keeping down the prices of petroleum and other fuel.

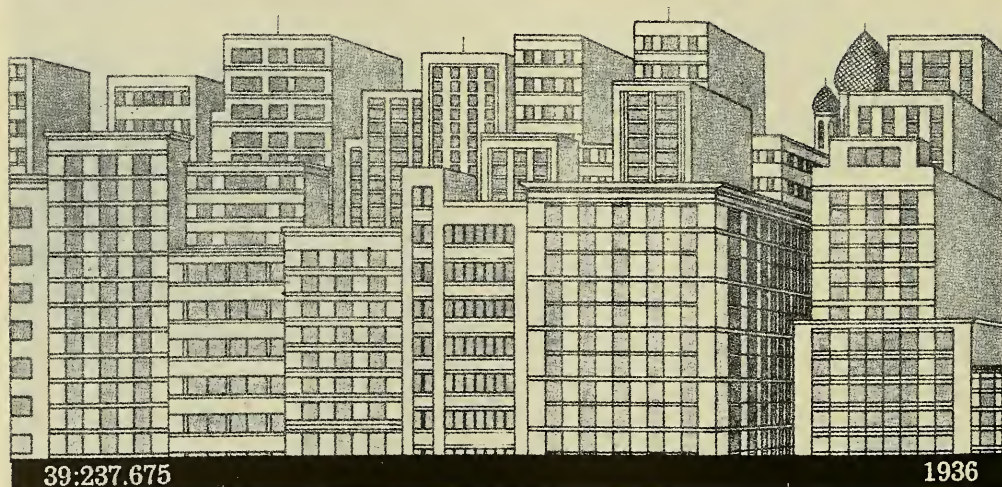
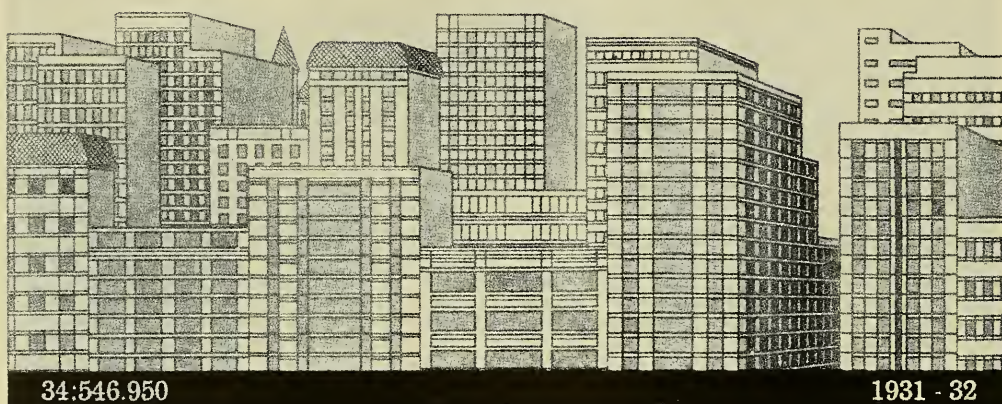
country in 1912, gradually taking over private plants. It is reported by Hanson³ that the management of the UTE has in the past maintained its plants well, been progressive in its campaigns for greater use of electrical appliances, kept the rates moderate, and made considerable profits. This organization also has control of the telephone system.

Other businesses conducted by the Uruguayan Government include a slaughter house and meat packing establishment, opened in 1928, and the Institute of Industrial Chemistry, created in 1912. The latter has been manufacturing certain chemicals for many years, especially fertilizers and sulphuric acid. Last year it

made sales to the amount of 720,000 pesos and announced that its finances were in a flourishing condition.

Like several other South American countries, Uruguay owns part, but not all, of its railways. The general railway system was developed by foreign capital, as was the case in the United States. However, Uruguay had planned the location of the main lines and given certain financial assurances to the British companies. High rates caused considerable discontent in 1921, as they had done before, and soon afterwards the Government purchased one railroad and began building some short scattered lines. A little more than 30 miles was built in 1938, continuing the line from Sarandí del Yí north. The government

³ Hanson, *op. cit.*



From "25 Años, Banco Hipotecario del Uruguay, 1912-1937"

AMOUNT OF CONSTRUCTION LOANS MADE BY THE STATE MORTGAGE BANK

CATTLE AT AN URUGUAYAN PACKING PLANT

Several foreign firms have packing plants in Uruguay, and the Government also owns one.



lines now total about 270 miles, while the privately-owned system is 1,500 miles long. A network of highways, largely paralleling the latter, exerted considerable influence towards the reduction of railway rates.

The Minister of Finance stated that in 1938 the State corporations had contributed to the national budget 3.4 million pesos in a total of 92.5 million pesos. This naturally does not indicate their total profits (figures for these are not yet available), part of which went into reserves, expansion, and other similar items, and other direct and indirect benefits to the country.

In connection with the foregoing brief summary of Uruguayan government enterprises, an Uruguayan comment may be cited. Daniel Rey Vercesi of the ANCAP, writing in the *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union for November 1936 on *Power Problems in Uruguay*, said: "The Government, interpreting the wishes of the people, has gradually but unswervingly nationalized the public services. This function it has regarded as essentially social, and ex-

pressive of the needs and characteristics of the country." He goes on to mention "the complete autonomy of bodies such as the ANCAP, over which the government exercises only a supervisory function and in which politics take a second place. In fact, when occasionally political appointees enter the Administration [*i. e.*, the ANCAP] they are prone to identify themselves with it and turn into fervent defenders of autonomy." His conclusion, although relating specifically to the organization with which he is identified, expresses his countrymen's philosophy concerning their government in business: "It is therefore seen that although the ANCAP is mainly concerned with specific industrial and commercial matters, it makes a real contribution to collective progress. It tends to give to Uruguay (which, although small, is eager for progress and a broader future) the most complete economic emancipation, thus promoting the best development of its people and the highest welfare of its workers."

This viewpoint was inculcated in the

Uruguayans by a progressive president, José Batlle,⁴ who soon after beginning his second administration in 1911, commenced working for State monopolies of insurance and electricity, the 8-hour day, regulation of working conditions, universal suffrage, the establishment of institutions to aid fundamental industries, and many other similar ideas. He believed first and foremost in effective democracy. A leading article of his creed was that the State must act to lessen economic inequality between the rich and poor, but without fostering class hatred. He and his party were solicitous of the rights of labor and believed foreign capital a menace. They wanted the profits of necessary corporations to be kept within the country instead of being distributed to stockholders abroad. They were not opposed to national capital except when it infringed on the rights of labor.

Batlle, born in 1856, lived to see many of

⁴ *Pronounced approximately Hō-sá Băt-yā.*

his ideas translated into legislation and put into operation, for he did not die until 1929. Meantime Uruguay had acquired a reputation for fearlessness in leading the way to solutions of social problems. As for labor, it enjoys a favorable situation before the law. The Constitution of 1934 says:

ARTICLE 52. Labor is under the special protection of the law.

ARTICLE 53. The law recognizes, in respect of those who work as laborers or employees, their moral and civic independence, their right to a just remuneration, a limited day's work, a weekly rest and decent moral and physical conditions. The work of women and young people shall be subject to special regulation and limitation.

ARTICLE 54. The law shall regulate the impartial and just distribution of work.

ARTICLE 55. All undertakings which require the permanent presence of the workers must provide them with suitable food and lodging in such manner as shall be laid down by law.

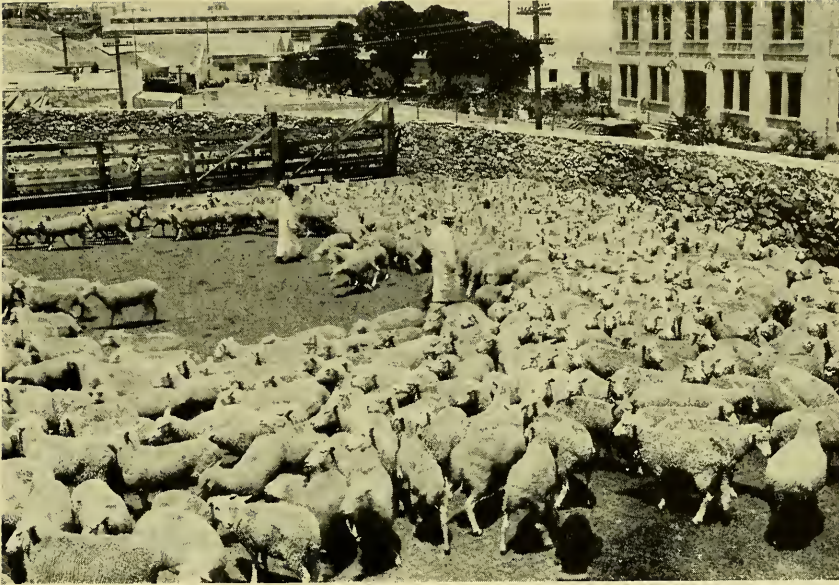
ARTICLE 56. The law shall promote the organization of trade unions, giving them freedom and



Photograph by Elsie Brown

MUNICIPAL FRUIT AND VEGETABLE MARKET, MONTEVIDEO

Uruguay and its capital are making every effort to see that citizens are able to obtain cheap and healthful food.



URUGUAYAN SHEEP

Wool is the leading export of Uruguay.

legal standing. It shall also promote the establishment of labor tribunals of conciliation and of award. The right to strike is acknowledged as a legal trade union right, and shall be regulated on this basis.

ARTICLE 58. General pensions and social insurance shall be organized so as to insure that all workers, employees and laborers receive adequate pensions and grants in case of accident, disease, invalidity, unemployment, etc., and corresponding pensions shall be paid to their families in case of death. Old-age pensions constitute a right for those who have reached the limit of their productive age after a long stay in the country and who lack the necessary means of support.⁵

Legislation, generally enacted before 1934, already implements most of these provisions of the Constitution. As for a "just remuneration", a minimum wage law was first adopted in Uruguay by the municipality of Montevideo in 1920. Congress passed in 1923 a law covering

rural workers, in 1926 one for port workers, in 1934 one for those engaged in home work, and in 1935 one for persons employed in shoe factories.

With regard to "a limited day's work", Uruguay passed a law providing for the 8-hour day and 48-hour week for adults in industry in 1915, after it had been agitated since 1906. This was the first 8-hour law in South America. However, many Uruguayan workers had already won similar hours through union action. Later laws provided for a 44-hour week and Saturday half-holiday in some establishments, as well as for two weeks' vacation with pay for employees in commercial houses and private offices.

"A weekly rest" was assured to urban workers, including domestic servants, in 1920 and to rural workers by a provision of the minimum wage act in 1923.

Inspectors of the Ministry of Health exercise a systematic oversight of factories.

⁵ *Labour Conference of the American States which are Members of the International Labour Organization, Record of Proceedings, International Labour Office, Geneva, 1936.*

Children under 12 were forbidden by the 1934 Children's Code to work on farms or ranches and those under 14 in industrial establishments. No child under 18 may be employed in work not approved by the Children's Council.

"Suitable food and lodging" were prescribed in the minimum wage law for rural workers in 1923. It may be added that a considerable item in the cost of the Río Negro power project is for housing men employed in construction.

At the Labour Conference of the American States which are members of the International Labour Organization, held in Chile in 1936, Miguel Salom, an Uruguayan adviser, said concerning the rights of labor:

Employers and workers through the National Institute of Labour can revise and coordinate our social laws, and their control of the employment exchanges makes it possible for them to study and solve in a practical way the pressing problem of unemployment. The technical machinery adopted in these employment exchanges is a model of its kind. It includes the staffs of all the commercial establishments affiliated to the Pension Fund, and all workers employed in public services or on public works of any kind. It respects the right to strike. Its services are absolutely free to all workers. These exchanges have been established according to the most liberal and advanced technical methods; they encourage a good understanding between employers and employees, inviting them to solve their differences in a democratic and friendly manner.⁶

This Institute, which is subordinate to the Ministry of Industry and Labor, mediated successfully in 80 per cent of the labor conflicts in 1938. As a result, several unions, especially in the building trades, won higher wages.

"Social security", by which in general we in the United States mean old-age

⁶ *Labour Conference of the American States, etc., op. cit.*

assistance, pensions after a certain number of years of employment, and unemployment insurance, dates from 1919 in Uruguay, when Congress passed a law providing for old-age and invalidity insurance. Civil and military employees of the Government had received retirement pensions since the early days of the nation; teachers were similarly provided for in 1896. In 1919 the Government began to extend such pensions to private industry with a law covering employees in public utilities. Employees of banking institutions were added in 1925, and in 1928 employees of all stock companies not definitely excepted. The pension laws were revised in 1934, when their scope was further extended. Thus most city workers were protected against old age and invalidity; their families too were assured of pensions in case of their death. Unemployment insurance takes the form of pensions given to workers in commerce and industry if they are dismissed through no fault of their own and are unable to find new jobs. Industrial accident compensation was required by a law that went into effect in 1921. Thus Uruguayan workers have enjoyed social security for many years. Women workers have leave with half pay for a month before and after childbirth and are protected by regulations concerning night work and other matters.

Many interesting features of Uruguayan labor legislation might be mentioned, but limitations of space forbid.

Uruguay is proud of its ratifications of conventions of the International Labour Organization; they cover 30 of the 42 conventions in effect in March 1939. Legislation implementing all but seven of those ratified had been passed, often prior to ratification, and legislation on others was pending.

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THE JAGUAR

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now almost 50 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima, Peru, in 1938. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: XOCHIPILLI, THE AZTEC GOD OF FLOWERS,
IN THE GARDEN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION





THE MONUMENT TO BOLÍVAR, PANAMA

The Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics paid tribute to Bolívar, who convoked the Inter-American Conference that met in Panama in 1826, by laying a wreath at the foot of his statue.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIII, No. 11



NOVEMBER 1939

Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

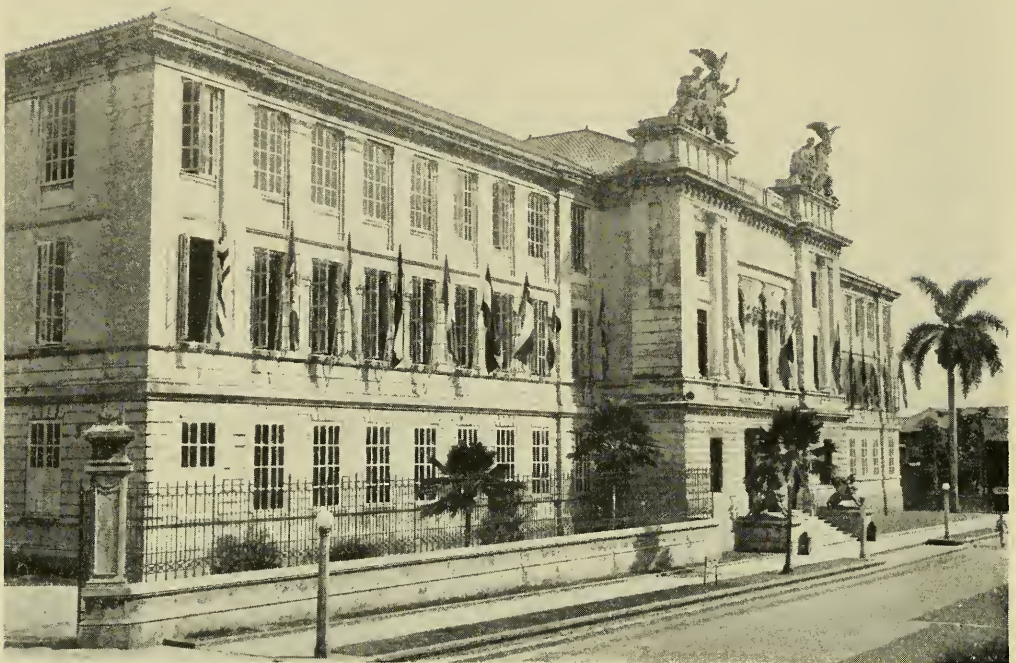
L. S. ROWE

Director General, Pan American Union

IT WOULD BE difficult to imagine a more inspiring picture than that presented by the opening session of the Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held at Panama from September 23 to October 3, 1939. No other section of the world can offer such a spectacle. In the presence of a world catastrophe the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of twenty-one nations or their immediate representatives assembled with the sole purpose of formulating a continental policy to protect the rights of the American Republics and to take such steps as might be necessary to avoid the danger of having any of the nations, members of the Pan American Union, drawn into the conflict. "The attitude assumed by the American Republics has served to demonstrate that it is their unanimous intention not to become involved in the European conflict," the Meeting stated in the preamble to one of its resolutions.

The Meeting was the first application in inter-American relations of the procedure of consultation, established in agreements signed at the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, which met at Buenos Aires in 1936, and the Eighth International Conference of American States, held at Lima in 1938. Following a preliminary exchange of views among several of the Governments, the Government of Panama extended invitations to the Ministers of Foreign Affairs or their representatives to meet at its capital.

In any estimate of the results of this Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, it is important to consider the intangible aspects as well as the tangible results. I doubt whether any international gathering has ever shown such unity of purpose. It is a matter of no little significance that in the face of a common danger to their safety and economic well-being, the nations of America have without



Courtesy of the Government of Panama

THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF PANAMA

The First Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics took place here from September 23 to October 3, 1939.

a dissenting voice affirmed their solidarity of interest as well as their determination to present a united front in the maintenance of their rights and in the preservation of the peace of this continent.

To appreciate the full significance of the conference, it is necessary to keep in mind the atmosphere of friendship and good will and the spirit of cooperation which were its outstanding characteristics. It was inevitable that differences of opinion as to the measures that should be adopted should manifest themselves in the course of the discussions, but these differences arose not from any desire to secure selfish advantages for any one state or group of states, but rather from honest differences of viewpoint as to the measures that would

best contribute to the welfare of the Americas.

In the drafting of the regulations of the Meeting, as well as in the procedure followed during the sessions, the fact that the meeting was "a consultation" of Ministers of Foreign Affairs rather than a diplomatic conference was strongly emphasized. There were but three public sessions: the opening session, at which Dr. Juan D. Arosemena, the President of Panama, delivered a notable address; the second, at which Dr. Narciso Garay, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Panama, made an address of welcome and was elected president of the Meeting; and the closing session, at which a number of delegates spoke and the Final Act was

signed. The other meetings were of an executive character and were held behind closed doors. The Ministers of Foreign Affairs sat around a large table; this tended to foster an informal exchange of views. The consultative nature of the meeting was also apparent in the conclusions, which took the form of resolutions and declarations rather than treaties or conventions.

At the outset of its labors, the Conference decided, in accordance with the terms of the agenda,¹ to devote its efforts to three cardinal objectives; with regard to all, constructive results were obtained. These objectives were:

1. Clarification of the rights and duties of the American Republics in their capacity as neutrals.
2. Preservation of the American Republics from any involvement in the European conflict.
3. Solution of the economic difficulties confronting the American Republics as a result of the European conflict.

The Meeting, in reaffirming the solidarity of the nations of this hemisphere, declared that in their endeavor to maintain and strengthen peace and harmony among them, their principles, far from having a selfish purpose of isolation, were inspired by a deep sense of universal cooperation.

An analysis of the concrete achievements of the conference shows that the measures to keep America free from entanglement in the European War must occupy first place. The series of declarations and resolutions adopted may be said to constitute a code of conduct designed to avoid complications and irritating disputes with the belligerent powers.

The question of the rights and duties of neutrals was made the subject of a comprehensive resolution, called the General Declaration of Neutrality of the American Republics, clearly defining the rights that the American Republics are pre-



Courtesy of the Government of Panama

PRESIDENT JUAN D. AROSEMENA ADDRESSING THE OPENING SESSION OF THE MEETING

pared to assert, as well as the obligations that they are prepared to fulfill. (See page 614 for the text of this resolution.) In this connection it is important to mention the fact that it is left to each Republic to regulate in its individual and sovereign capacity the manner in which it is to apply the resolution. The closing section provides for the appointment by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union of a commission of seven experts in international law to study the problems of neutrality "in the light of experience and changing circumstances", and to make recommendations relating thereto to the governments of the several Republics.

The Declaration of Panama² begins by saying: "The Governments of the American Republics meeting at Panama, have solemnly ratified their neutral status in the conflict which is disrupting the peace of Europe, but the present war may lead to

¹ See page 613.

² See page 616.

unexpected results which may affect the fundamental interests of America and there can be no justification for the interests of the belligerents to prevail over the rights of neutrals, causing disturbances and suffering to nations which by their neutrality in the conflict and their distance from the scene of events, should not be burdened with its fatal and painful consequences." To safeguard the rights of neutrals the Declaration makes an innovation in international relations by estab-

lishing a clearly defined zone which is to be kept free from all belligerent operations. The President of Panama has already notified the nations at war of this decision of the American Republics. A patrol of the zone may be agreed upon by common consent.

Another important subject to which the Conference gave much attention was contraband of war. A resolution was adopted expressing opposition to including on lists of contraband foodstuffs and clothing in-



Courtesy of the Christian Science Monitor

THE HONORABLE SUMNER WELLES, UNDER SECRETARY OF STATE, REPRESENTED THE UNITED STATES AT THE FIRST MEETING OF FOREIGN MINISTERS

Left to right: Mr. Welles; the Honorable Narciso Garay, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Panama and President of the Meeting; and the Honorable William Dawson, Ambassador of the United States to Panama.

tended for civilian populations, and not destined directly or indirectly for the use of a belligerent government or its armed forces, and declaring that the granting of credits to belligerents for the purchase of such merchandise is also not contrary to neutrality whenever it is permitted by the legislation of the neutral countries.³

No less significant is the series of resolutions designed to protect the American Republics, insofar as such protection is possible, from economic and financial dislocations due to the European war. Of the measures adopted to further this purpose, probably the most important is the establishment of the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee to sit at Washington during the period of the war and to advise the respective governments as to the best means to preserve and strengthen the commercial and financial relations between the nations, members of the Pan American Union. The Union is requested to undertake the organization of this committee, which is to convene by November 15, 1939.⁴

In addition to the declarations and resolutions here summarized, a series of conclusions of a general character was adopted, all tending to emphasize the unity of purpose and policy, as well as the solidarity of interest, of the American Republics.

Those attending the Conference were fully aware that at this first Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs all the complex problems involved in the neutral status of the American Republics could not be solved. Furthermore, it was evident that as the European War proceeded, new problems would arise which would call for further consultation. It was for this reason

³ See page 620.

⁴ See page 618 for the text of the resolution on economic cooperation. The organization of the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee was entrusted to the Pan American Union by another brief resolution.

that provision was made for the two permanent committees on neutrality and economic affairs mentioned above to sit during the period of the emergency. This situation was also recognized in a resolution providing for a further meeting of the Foreign Ministers at Habana on October 1, 1940, or earlier if necessary. The determination of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs to keep in close touch with one another throughout the entire emergency period is certain to have far-reaching effects in fostering Pan American cooperation not only during the conflict but after peace is restored.

Provision was also made for a meeting in case danger to the security of the American Continent should arise from a compulsory change in the sovereignty of any part of America subject to the jurisdiction of a non-American state.

An evaluation of the conference in the light of both its concrete achievements and the friendly and cooperative spirit that especially characterized its deliberations justifies the belief that the Panama Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics will always mark an important stage in the forward march of Pan Americanism.

ANNEXES

PROGRAM OF THE MEETING

I

NEUTRALITY

Consideration of the rights and duties of neutrals and belligerents in the present situation with a view to the preservation of the integral sovereignty and the peace of the nations of the Western Hemisphere;

Steps to be taken in common or individually:

1. To suppress violations of neutrality and subversive activities by nationals of belligerent countries or others seeking to promote the interests of belligerent powers in the territory and

jurisdiction of any or all of the American Republics.

2. To enforce the obligations of belligerent public and merchant vessels and aircraft in neutral territorial waters and areas.

3. To safeguard the carrying on of legitimate international trade, commerce and communications of the American Republics on the high seas, on land and in the air.

4. To discharge neutral obligations toward belligerent nations.

II

PROTECTION OF THE PEACE OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE

Consideration of measures to preserve the American continent free from conflict whether on land, in the air, within territorial waters, or within the area of the primary defense of the Western Hemisphere.

III

ECONOMIC COOPERATION

Consideration of measures to safeguard in the present situation the economic and financial stability of the American Republics. Such measures include:

A. Measures to preserve commercial and financial interests of the American Republics.

B. Continuation and expansion of long-term programs for commercial and economic cooperation among the American Republics.

JOINT DECLARATION OF CONTINENTAL SOLIDARITY

The Governments of the American Republics, represented at this first meeting of their Foreign Ministers,

Firmly united by the democratic spirit which is the basis of their institutions,

Desirous of strengthening on this occasion the solidarity which is the outgrowth of that spirit, and

Desirous of preserving peace in the American Continent and of promoting its reestablishment throughout the world,

DECLARE

1. That they reaffirm the declaration of solidarity among the nations of this Hemisphere, proclaimed at the Eighth International Conference of American States at Lima in 1938;

2. That they will endeavor with all the appropriate spiritual and material means at their disposal to maintain and strengthen peace and

harmony among the Republics of America, as an indispensable requirement to the effective fulfillment of the duty that devolves upon them in the world-wide historical development of civilization and culture;

3. That these principles are free from any selfish purpose of isolation, but are rather inspired by a deep sense of universal cooperation, which impels these nations to express the most fervent wishes for the cessation of the deplorable state of war which today exists in some countries of Europe, to the grave danger of the most cherished spiritual, moral, and economic interests of humanity, and for the reestablishment of peace throughout the world—a peace not based on violence, but on justice and law. (*Approved October 3, 1939.*)

GENERAL DECLARATION OF NEUTRALITY OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS

WHEREAS:

As proclaimed in the Declaration of Lima, "The peoples of America have achieved spiritual unity through the similarity of their republican institutions, their unshakable will for peace, their profound sentiment of humanity and tolerance, and through their absolute adherence to the principles of international law, of the equal sovereignty of States and of individual liberty without religious or racial prejudices";

This acknowledged spiritual unity presupposes common and solidary attitudes with reference to situations of force which, as in the case of the present European war, may threaten the security of the sovereign rights of the American Republics;

The attitude assumed by the American Republics has served to demonstrate that it is their unanimous intention not to become involved in the European conflict; and

It is desirable to state the standards of conduct, which, in conformity with international law and their respective internal legislation, the American Republics propose to follow, in order to maintain their status as neutral states and fulfill their neutral duties, as well as require the recognition of the rights inherent in such a status,

The Meeting of the Foreign Ministers of the American Republics

RESOLVES

1. To reaffirm the status of general neutrality of the American Republics, it being left to each one of them to regulate in their individual and sovereign capacities the manner in which they are to give it concrete application.

2. To have their rights and status as neutrals



Courtesy of the Government of Panama

ASSEMBLING FOR A SESSION OF THE FIRST MEETING OF THE FOREIGN MINISTERS OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS

The consultative nature of this gathering was emphasized by the fact that the delegates met around a long table.

fully respected and observed by all belligerents and by all persons who may be acting for or on behalf of or in the interest of the belligerents.

3. To declare that with regard to their status as neutrals, there exist certain standards recognized by the American Republics applicable in these circumstances and that in accordance with them they:

(a) Shall prevent their respective terrestrial, maritime and aerial territories from being utilized as bases of belligerent operations.

(b) Shall prevent, in accordance with their internal legislations, the inhabitants of their territories from engaging in activities capable of affecting the neutral status of the American Republics.

(c) Shall prevent on their respective territories the enlistment of persons to serve in the military, naval, or air forces of the belligerents; the retaining or inducing of persons to go beyond their respective shores for the purpose of taking part in belligerent operations; the setting on foot of any military, naval or aerial expedition in the interests of the belligerents; the fitting out, arming, or augmenting of the forces or armament of any

ship or vessel to be employed in the service of one of the belligerents, to cruise or commit hostilities against another belligerent, or its nationals or property; the establishment by the belligerents or their agents of radio stations in the terrestrial or maritime territory of the American Republics, or the utilization of such stations to communicate with the governments or armed forces of the belligerents.

(d) May determine, with regard to belligerent warships, that not more than three at a time be admitted in their own ports or waters and in any case they shall not be allowed to remain for more than twenty-four hours. Vessels engaged exclusively in scientific, religious or philanthropic missions may be exempted from this provision, as well as those which arrive in distress.

(e) Shall require all belligerent vessels and aircraft seeking the hospitality of areas under their jurisdiction and control to respect strictly their neutral status and to observe their respective laws and regulations and the rules of international law pertaining to the rights and duties of neutrals and belligerents; and in the event that difficulties are experienced in enforcing the observance of and

respect for their rights, the case, if so requested, shall thereupon become a subject of consultation between them.

(f) Shall regard as a contravention of their neutrality any flight by the military aircraft of a belligerent state over their own territory. With respect to nonmilitary aircraft, they shall adopt the following measures: such aircraft shall fly only with the permission of the competent authority; all aircraft, regardless of nationality, shall follow routes determined by the said authorities; their commanders or pilots shall declare the place of departure, the stops to be made and their destination; they shall be allowed to use radio-telegraphy only to determine their route and flying conditions, utilizing for this purpose the national language, without code, only the standard abbreviations being allowed; the competent authorities may require aircraft to carry a co-pilot or a radio operator for purposes of control. Belligerent military aircraft transported on board warships shall not leave these vessels while in the waters of the American Republics; belligerent military aircraft landing in the territory of an American Republic shall be interned with their crews until the cessation of hostilities, except in cases in which the landing is made because of proven distress. There shall be exempted from the application of these rules cases in which there exist conventions to the contrary.

(g) May submit belligerent merchant vessels, as well as their passengers, documents and cargo, to inspection in their own ports; the respective consular agent shall certify as to the ports of call and destination as well as to the fact that the voyage is undertaken solely for purposes of commercial interchange. They may also supply fuel to such vessels in amounts sufficient for the voyage to a port of supply and call in another American Republic, except in the case of a direct voyage to another continent, in which circumstance they may supply the necessary amount of fuel. Should it be proven that these vessels have supplied belligerent warships with fuel, they shall be considered as auxiliary transports.

(h) May concentrate and place a guard on board belligerent merchant vessels which have sought asylum in their waters, and may intern those which have made false declarations as to their destinations, as well as those which have taken an unjustified or excessive time in their voyage, or have adopted the distinctive signs of warships.

(i) Shall consider as lawful the transfer of the flag of a merchant vessel to that of any American Republic provided such transfer is made in good

faith, without agreement for resale to the vendor, and that it takes place in the waters of an American Republic.

(j) Shall not assimilate to warships belligerent armed merchant vessels if they do not carry more than four six-inch guns mounted on the stern, and their lateral decks are not reinforced, and if, in the judgment of the local authorities, there do not exist other circumstances which reveal that the merchant vessels can be used for offensive purposes. They may require of the said vessels, in order to enter their ports, to deposit explosives and munitions in such places as the local authorities may determine.

(k) May exclude belligerent submarines from the waters adjacent to their territories or admit them under the condition that they conform to the regulations which each country may prescribe.

4. In the spirit of this declaration, the Governments of the American Republics shall maintain close contact with a view to making uniform so far as possible, the enforcement of their neutrality and to safeguarding it in defense of their fundamental rights.

5. With a view to studying and formulating recommendations with respect to the problems of neutrality, in the light of experience and changing circumstances, there shall be established, for the duration of the European war, an Inter-American Neutrality Committee, composed of seven experts in international law, who shall be designated by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union before November 1, 1939. The recommendations of the Committee shall be transmitted, through the Pan American Union, to the Governments of the American Republics. (*Approved October 3, 1939.*)

DECLARATION OF PANAMA

The Governments of the American Republics meeting at Panama, have solemnly ratified their neutral status in the conflict which is disrupting the peace of Europe, but the present war may lead to unexpected results which may affect the fundamental interests of America and there can be no justification for the interests of the belligerents to prevail over the rights of neutrals causing disturbances and suffering to nations which by their neutrality in the conflict and their distance from the scene of events, should not be burdened with its fatal and painful consequences.

During the World War of 1914-18 the Governments of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru advanced, or supported, individual proposals providing in principle a declaration by the American Republics that the belliger-



ent nations must refrain from committing hostile acts within a reasonable distance from their shores.

The nature of the present conflagration, in spite of its already lamentable proportions, would not justify any obstruction to inter-American communications which, engendered by important interests, call for adequate protection. This fact requires the demarcation of a zone of security in-

cluding all the normal maritime routes of communication and trade between the countries of America.

To this end it is essential as a measure of necessity to adopt immediately provisions based on the above-mentioned precedents for the safeguarding of such interests, in order to avoid a repetition of the damages and sufferings sustained by the Ameri-

can nations and by their citizens in the war of 1914-18.

There is no doubt that the Governments of the American Republics must foresee those dangers and as a measure of self-protection insist that the waters to a reasonable distance from their coasts shall remain free from the commission of hostile acts or from the undertaking of belligerent activities by nations engaged in a war in which the said governments are not involved.

For these reasons the Governments of the American Republics

RESOLVE AND HEREBY DECLARE:

1. As a measure of continental self-protection, the American Republics, so long as they maintain their neutrality, are as of inherent right entitled to have those waters adjacent to the American continent, which they regard as of primary concern and direct utility in their relations, free from the commission of any hostile act by any non-American belligerent nation, whether such hostile act be attempted or made from land, sea or air.

Such waters shall be defined as follows. All waters comprised within the limits set forth hereafter except the territorial waters of Canada and of the undisputed colonies and possessions of European countries within these limits:

Beginning at the terminus of the United States-Canada boundary in Passamaquoddy Bay, in 44°46'36" north latitude, and 66°54'11" west longitude;

Thence due east along the parallel 44°46'36" to a point 60° west of Greenwich;

Thence due south to a point in 20° north latitude;

Thence by a rhumb line to a point in 5° north latitude, 24° west longitude;

Thence due south to a point in 20° south latitude;

Thence by a rhumb line to a point in 58° south latitude, 57° west longitude;

Thence due west to a point in 80° west longitude;

Thence by a rhumb line to a point on the equator in 97° west longitude;

Thence by a rhumb line to a point in 15° north latitude, 120° west longitude;

Thence by a rhumb line to a point in 48°29'38" north latitude, 136° west longitude;

Thence due east to the Pacific terminus of the United States-Canada boundary in the Strait of Juan de Fuca.

2. The Governments of the American Republics agree that they will endeavor, through joint representation to such belligerents as may now or in

the future be engaged in hostilities, to secure the compliance by them with the provisions of this Declaration, without prejudice to the exercise of the individual rights of each State inherent in their sovereignty.

3. The Governments of the American Republics further declare that whenever they consider it necessary they will consult together to determine upon the measures which they may individually or collectively undertake in order to secure the observance of the provisions of this Declaration.

4. The American Republics, during the existence of a state of war in which they themselves are not involved, may undertake, whenever they may determine that the need therefor exists, to patrol, either individually or collectively, as may be agreed upon by common consent, and insofar as the means and resources of each may permit, the waters adjacent to their coasts within the area above defined. (*Approved October 3, 1939.*)

RESOLUTION ON ECONOMIC COOPERATION

The Meeting of the Foreign Ministers of the American Republics

RESOLVES:

1. In view of the present circumstances, to declare that today it is more desirable and necessary than ever to establish a close and sincere cooperation between the American Republics in order that they may protect their economic and financial structure, maintain their fiscal equilibrium, safeguard the stability of their currencies, promote and expand their industries, intensify their agriculture and develop their commerce.

2. To create an Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee consisting of twenty-one (21) experts in economic problems, one for each of the American Republics, which shall be installed in Washington, D. C., not later than November 15, 1939, and which shall have the following functions:

(a) To consider any problem of monetary relationships, foreign exchange management, or balance of international payment situation, which may be presented to it by the Government of any of the American Republics, and to offer to that Government whatever recommendations it deems desirable.

(b) To study the most practical and satisfactory means of obtaining the stability of the monetary and commercial relationships between the American Republics.

(c) To provide, with the cooperation of the Pan

American Union, the means for the interchange of information between the Governments of the American Republics with reference to the matters mentioned in the two preceding subparagraphs, as well as for the exchange of production, foreign trade, financial and monetary statistics, custom legislation and other reports on inter-American commerce.

(d) To study and propose to the Governments the most effective measures for mutual cooperation to lessen or offset any dislocations which may arise in the trade of the American Republics and to maintain trade among themselves, and as far as possible, their trade with the rest of the world, which may be affected by the present war, on the basis of those liberal principles of international trade approved at the Seventh and Eighth International Conferences of American States and the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace. These principles shall be retained as the goal of their long-term commercial policies in order that the world shall not lack a basis of world-wide international trade in which all may participate after world order and peace may be restored.

(e) To study the possibility of establishing a custom truce, of reducing custom duties on the typical commodities which an American country may offer in the market of another American country, of abolishing or modifying import licenses on such commodities, as well as all the other obstacles which render difficult the interchange of products between the said countries, of adopting a uniform principle of equality of treatment, eliminating all discriminatory measures, and of giving ample facilities to salesmen traveling from an American country to another.

(f) To study the necessity of creating an inter-American institution which may render feasible and insure permanent financial cooperation between the treasuries, the Central Banks and analogous institutions of the American Republics, and propose the manner and conditions under which such an organization should be established and determine the matters with which it should deal.

(g) To study measures which tend to promote the importation and consumption of products of the American Republics, especially through the promotion of lower prices and better transportation and credit facilities.

(h) To study the usefulness and feasibility of organizing an Inter-American Commercial Institute to maintain the importers and exporters of the American Republics in contact with each

other and to supply them with the necessary data for the promotion of inter-American trade.

(i) To study the possibility of establishing new industries and negotiating commercial treaties, especially for the interchange of the raw materials of each country.

(j) To study the possibility that silver be also one of the mediums for international payments.

The Inter-American Economic Advisory Committee shall communicate to the Governments the results of the studies made in each case and shall recommend the measures which it considers should be taken.

3. To recommend to the Governments of the American Republics:

(a) To take measures in accordance with their own respective legislation, with a view to avoiding increases of rates or premiums to an extent not justified by the special expenses and risks incurred because of the present state of war, by shipping companies which maintain transportation services between the countries of the Continent, and marine insurance companies operating in their territories.

(b) To promote the negotiation of bilateral or multilateral agreements for the organization and maintenance of regular and connected steamship services between the countries of the Continent in order to facilitate the direct traffic of passengers and cargoes. These agreements are to make special provisions for traveling salesmen and commercial samples.

(c) To study the possibility of reducing to a minimum consular fees on manifests of vessels in the above-mentioned services, so as to make possible the shipment of reduced quantities of commodities which require rapid and special transportation.

(d) To study the possibility, in accordance with their legislation, of reducing to a minimum port, sanitary and other formalities applied to the traffic of merchandise between the American Republics.

4. To recommend to the Governments that they do everything possible to abolish obstacles to the free inter-American movement of capital.

5. To recommend to the Governments that, when deemed necessary, they negotiate agreements in accordance with the circumstances and legislation of each country, with a view to the establishment of bases that would make feasible and secure the granting of inter-American credits which may serve to intensify the interchange of products as well as for the development of natural resources.

6. To request the governments of the most industrialized countries of the Continent to do whatever is possible, within their legal faculties and circumstances, to prevent excessive and unjustified increases in the prices of manufactured articles destined for export.

7. To recommend that the American Governments promote the negotiation of arrangements, in accordance with their legislation and within their possibilities, with a view to obtaining ample facilities with regard to the treatment of re-embarkation of merchandise sold or acquired by American countries, detained at the present moment on board merchant vessels of countries at war which are unable to transport it to its original destination.

8. To recommend to the respective Governments that they preserve in a reciprocal and generous form the legitimate principle of freedom of communications and transit through the ports and territories of the American nations, in accordance with the legislation and international agreements in force.

9. To recommend that countries bordering on each other hold, among themselves, meetings of their Ministers of Foreign Affairs, or of their Ministers of Finance, or of special plenipotentiaries, in the capital of one of them, in order to arrive at agreements for solving common problems of a financial, fiscal, or economic character, in conformity with the relevant general principles of commercial policy approved at recent inter-American Conferences.

10. To make every effort in order to complete their respective sections of the Pan American Highway and to recommend to the countries which have ratified the Buenos Aires Convention that they designate as soon as possible one or more experts to expedite the fulfillment of the recommendations of the Third Pan American Highway Congress. (*Approved, October 3, 1939.*)

RESOLUTION ON CONTRABAND OF WAR

WHEREAS:

The Convention on Maritime Neutrality, signed at Habana on February 20, 1928, recites in the Preamble thereof that "international solidarity requires that the liberty of commerce should be always respected, avoiding as far as possible unnecessary burdens for the neutrals";

Article 16 of the same Convention stipulates that "Credits that a neutral state may give to

facilitate the sale or exportation of its food products and raw materials" are not included within the prohibition contained in that article against the granting of loans or the opening of credits to a belligerent by a neutral state during the duration of war;

The American Republics cannot remain indifferent to measures that restrict their normal commerce with belligerents in foodstuffs, clothing and raw materials for peace-time industries;

Elemental humanitarian considerations impel the American Republics to deplore the deprivation of civilian populations of the normal means of subsistence;

The American Republics, in accordance with a lofty conception of neutrality, consider unjustified the limitations which may be placed upon their legitimate commerce and trade with the neutral countries of other continents; and

The American Republics consider that it is indispensable to avoid, in accordance with their domestic laws, the effects of measures within their respective territories and in detriment to their sovereignty, which the belligerent governments may take to restrict the freedom of trade of their nationals in neutral countries,

The Meeting of the Foreign Ministers of the American Republics

RESOLVES:

1. To register its opposition to the placing of foodstuffs and clothing intended for civilian populations, not destined directly or indirectly for the use of a belligerent government or its armed forces, on lists of contraband.

2. To declare that they do not consider contrary to neutrality the granting of credits to belligerents for the acquisition of merchandise mentioned in the foregoing paragraph, whenever permitted by the domestic legislation of the neutral countries.

3. That the Neutrality Committee, established by another agreement of this Meeting, shall undertake the immediate study of whatever concerns the commercial situation of raw materials, minerals, plant or animal, produced by the American Republics, and shall recommend such individual or collective action that should be taken by the governments for the purpose of reducing the unfavorable effects on the free movement of these commodities, of contraband declarations and other economic measures of the belligerent countries. (*Approved October 3, 1939.*)

The American Experience

ARCHIBALD MACLEISH

Librarian of Congress

THIS is an occasion without precedent in the history of the Library of Congress. But not perhaps for the reason of which you think. It is an occasion without precedent in the history of the Library of Congress because it is the first time in the Library's history when the Librarian has opened a new building or a new division with a speech.

The Library moved across from the Capitol to the building in which we stand to the accompaniment of an eloquent and admired silence. Forty years later it pushed its frontiers across the street to the Annex which can be seen from these windows without a single word. Today it opens its Hispanic Room with a speech by the Librarian.

Unkind critics or unkind friends will suggest that the difference is a difference in librarians—that my predecessor being truly a librarian knew the golden value of that silence to which students in libraries are continually admonished whereas I, being a versifier, suffer from the itch for words which has always characterized my calling. It is a plausible explanation for it contains much truth. There is indeed a difference in Librarians and a difference, I fear, for the worse.

But the real explanation is not this. The real explanation is that the times change as well as the men. There are times when a great institution can let stone and mortar

speak for it. And there are other times when it must attempt to speak, however haltingly, for itself.

This is such a time. Once the value of the things of the spirit could be taken for granted. Once it could be taken for granted anywhere in the civilized world that the free inquiry of the free spirit was essential to the dignified and noble life of man. Once it could be assumed as a matter of course that the work of artists, the work of poets, the work of scholars, was good and should be respected, and would be preserved. Now it is no longer possible to assume these things. Now—and it is still incredible to us that it should be true—now such an act of faith in the life of the human spirit as we perform here today, such an act of respect for the labor of poets and scholars and of love for that which they have made, cannot be taken for granted: cannot be left to speak for itself even in a room as beautiful, as eloquent as this. It is necessary for us to say what it is that we are doing and why it is that we are doing it.

I for one am not proud of this necessity. I am not glad that it is necessary to speak.

What we do is this: we dedicate here a room and a division of the Library of Congress which has been set apart for the preservation and the study and the honor of the literature and scholarship of those other republics which share with ours the word American; and which share with ours also the memories of human hope and human courage which that word evokes—

Remarks on the occasion of the dedication of The Hispanic Room in The Library of Congress, October 12, 1939.

evokes now as never before in the history of our hemisphere.

Why we do it is also obvious. We do it because this literature and this scholarship are worthy in themselves of the closest study and the most meticulous care and the greatest veneration; and because they, more than any other literature and more than any other scholarship, help us in this republic to understand the American past which is common to us all.

We are beginning to perceive, as the peaceful dream of the Nineteenth Century fades away and the economic theories and scientific theories, which were to explain everything, fade away with it—we are beginning to perceive that man never was, and never can be, such a philosophic abstraction as the thinkers of that century supposed—that man is a creature living on this earth and that the earth he lives on qualifies his life. America has shaped and qualified and redirected the lives of men living on her continents for four hundred years. But we who are born in America and live our lives here have not very well understood our relations to these continents, nor our debt to them, nor in what way they have altered us and changed our bodies and our minds.

We have not understood this because we have turned, for the most part, to the literature and the scholarship of Europe for instruction, and for the interpretation of our world. Those of us who were of Latin origin have turned to the literatures of latinized Europe, and those of us who were of English and Celtic and Scandinavian and Teutonic origin to the literatures of northern Europe. We have found there great treasures, great wisdom, high instruction—but only rarely an interpretation of our own lives in terms of the earth we know. Even the American child reading his European poems feels the strangeness: the seasons are wrong, the

springs too early or too slow, the birds and animals different.

It is a curious condition but one which, by long habit, we have come to take as natural. We have looked at America with borrowed European eyes so long that we should hardly recognize the country if we saw it with our own. Doubtless we shall continue for many generations to look at America with these eyes. Our cultural inheritance is European by origin, and like other European legatees of other legacies we can enjoy it only in the original currency. Which means inevitably that we employ that original currency to value our American lives. But though it is inevitable that the great richness of our European past should impose its values upon our American present, it is not inevitable, and it is surely not desirable, that the great richness of our European past should exclude us from the richness of our own.

From the beginning of the sixteenth century there has been accumulating on these continents a body of recorded American experience of the very greatest importance to anyone concerned to understand the American earth and the relation of that earth to the men who live upon it. Because this experience has been recorded in several languages and because it has been deposited in scattered places—places as far apart as Santiago de Chile and Bogotá and Buenos Aires and Mexico City and New Orleans and St. Louis and Quebec—because, furthermore, it has been overlaid with the continuing importation of European literature and European thought—for all these reasons the recorded American experience has not influenced the common life of the Americas as it should have influenced it. It has not been useful to an understanding of the Americas as it should have been useful.

Other men who know these continents

better than I know them—other men who know these records of the American experience better than I shall ever know them—will think of many instances in their own lives when the words of men who lived in the Americas before them have made suddenly clear, and suddenly explicable, matters they had long wished to understand. But even in my shallow knowledge of these things there is one such indebtedness. Some twelve years ago in a Paris library I came upon a copy of Bernal Díaz' *True History of the Conquest of New Spain*. There in that still living, still human, still sharply breathing and believable story of Mexico it seemed to me that I understood for the first time the central American experience—the experience which is American because it can be nothing else—the experience of all those who, of whatever tongue, are truly American—the experience of the journey westward from the sea into the unknown and dangerous country beyond which lies the rich and lovely city for which men hope.

I tried at that time to make a poem of this understanding. The argument of my poem began—

Of that world's conquest and the fortunate wars:
Of the great report and expectation of honor:
How in their youth they stretched sail: how fared
they

Westward under the wind: by wave wandered:
Shoaled ship at the last at the ends of ocean:
How they were marching in the lands beyond:

Of the difficult ways there were and the winter's
snow:

Of the city they found in the good lands: how
they lay in it:

How there was always the leaves and the days
going

Other men will say the same thing in other words and many of them better. Historians will tell us how their study of the documents and monuments of Mexico and Peru opened to their minds the true perspective of American civilization—a civilization of which the first European date is the year 1523 when a school for

Indian boys was opened in Mexico City—of which the first American date lies deep under the limestone waters of Yucatan and the iron earth of Guatemala. Scholars will speak of the year 1539 when the first book to be printed in the Americas was printed in the city of Mexico. Lovers of human liberty will remember the name of Carlos de Sigüenza y Góngora who, in the year 1691, at a time when witches were being hung in Salem, successfully defended against the ecclesiastics of Mexico his opinion that the great eclipse of that year was a natural event. They will quote against all witch-burners in all centuries and countries his noble words: "I stood with my quadrant and telescope viewing the [blackened] sun, extremely happy and repeatedly thanking God for having granted that I might behold what so rarely happens in a given place and about which there are so few observations in the books."

No man living in the United States can truly say he knows the Americas unless he has a knowledge of these things—a knowledge of this other American past, this older American past which shares with ours the unforgettable experience of the journey toward the West and the westward hope.

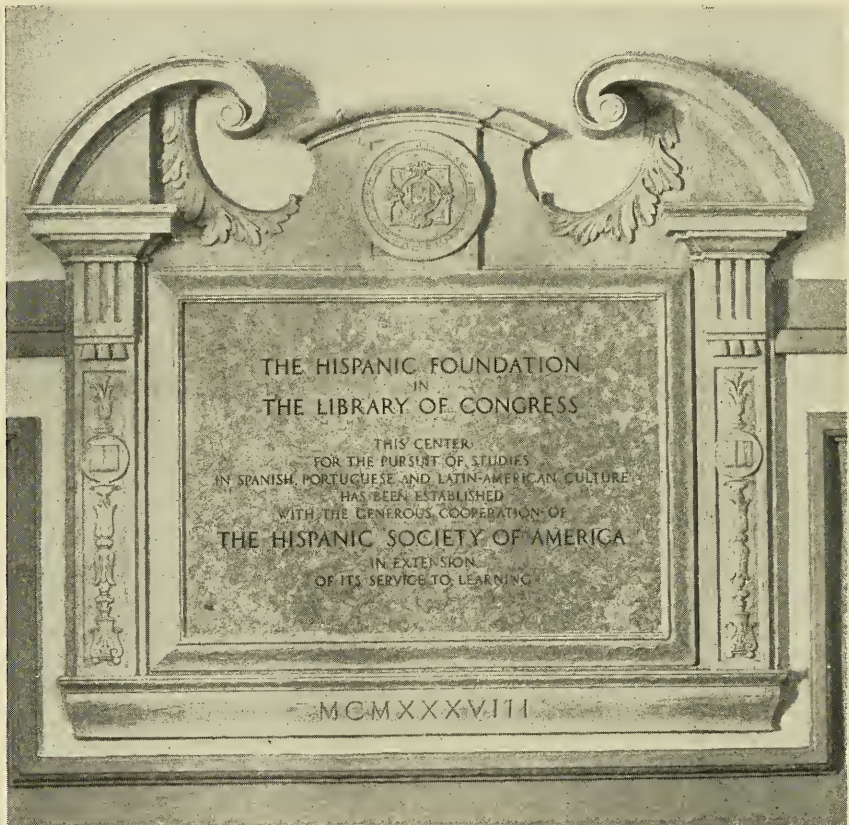
What we are doing in this room, then, is to dedicate to the uses of the citizens of the United States, and to the uses of learners and readers everywhere, these records of the American experience. In this Hispanic Room of the Library, students of the Americas may follow the great Iberian tradition which has populated with its ideas and its poetry by far the greater part of these two continents. Here they may read the rich and various works written in these continents in the Iberian tongues—the two great tongues which, with our own, have become the American language. Here, if our hopes are realized, Americans may some day find the greatest

collection of Hispanic literature and scholarship ever gathered in one place.

There are men in the world today—and many rather than few—who say that the proper study of mankind is not man but a particular kind of man. There are those who teach that the only cultural study proper to a great people is its own culture. There are those also who say that the only real brotherhood is that blood brotherhood for which so many wars have been fought and by which so many deaths are still

justified. The dedication of this room and of this collection of books is a demonstration of the fact that these opinions are not valid in the Americas: that in the Americas, peopled by so many hopes, so many sufferings, so many races, the highest brotherhood is still the brotherhood of the human spirit and the true study is the study of the best.

This is the belief of the people of this Republic expressed by the action of their national Library in the dedication of this room.



Courtesy of Library of Congress

COMMEMORATIVE TABLET

The Hispanic Foundation in the Library of Congress

ROBERT C. SMITH

Assistant Director

History

THE HISPANIC FOUNDATION in the Library of Congress is the most recently created center in the United States for the study of Hispanic culture both in the Old and in the New Worlds. The Library of Congress, of which the Foundation is an integral part, is the national library of the United States. Founded in 1800, it was at first located in the Capitol, where it received in 1815 its first important collection, the private library of Thomas Jefferson, two thirds of which was burned in 1851. In 1897, the Library was transferred to the present building, in a special gallery of which the Declaration of Independence and the Federal Constitution were placed on permanent exhibition twenty-seven years later (1924). On April 5, 1939, a new Annex was opened, giving the Library of Congress twice as much book space as any other library in this country.

Its director, the Librarian of Congress, Dr. Herbert Putnam, has just completed 40 years of service and is now retiring to the position of Librarian Emeritus after having increased the collection of books from less than half a million to over five million volumes. His successor is Mr. Archibald MacLeish, one of our most distinguished contemporary poets. During the course of these forty fruitful years, Dr. Putnam has transformed the Library of Congress into an institution "universal in scope, national in service." Today the collections comprise more than 5,500,000

volumes and pamphlets, 1,400,000 maps and views, 1,194,000 pieces and volumes of music, 542,000 prints, 97,000 bound volumes of newspapers, and so many manuscripts that a numerical estimate is not feasible. The Library possesses the largest collection of books on aeronautics in the world, the largest collection of Chinese books outside of China and Japan, and probably the largest collection of Russian books outside of Russia. In the Division of Manuscripts are the papers of nearly all the Presidents and of many statesmen. In the Rare-Book Collection are about 83,000 items; among them are many first editions, rare bindings, some 25,000 early American pamphlets, over 1,500 bound volumes of American eighteenth century newspapers. Of the more than 4,600 fifteenth century books, 3,000—including the St. Blasius-St. Paul copy of the Gutenberg Bible—were purchased by a special act of Congress in 1930.

Not only has material been collected and preserved, but concurrently there has been "a development and diversification of the service." The Library has become increasingly the resort of scholars. The service to Congress has been intensified by the creation of a Legislative Reference Service. The community at large has been benefited by the actual loan of books required for serious uses and not locally available; by publication of "select (topical) lists," of special catalogues and calendars in book form and, in a few cases, of



Courtesy of Library of Congress

THE HISPANIC ROOM

Here are seen some of the architectural details that make the room appear to belong to the *Siglo de Oro*.
Opening at the side are study rooms, above which are the bookstacks.

actual texts of historical manuscripts in the possession of the Library; by information furnished through correspondence; and by supplying at cost to other libraries, societies, and individuals, printed cards, a byproduct of the Library's cataloguing operations.

Many gifts have been made to the Library because of Dr. Putnam's personal enterprise and because of the growing public recognition of the preeminence of the Library as a national center of learning. An act of Congress, approved March 3, 1925, created "The Library of Congress Trust Fund Board," which authorizes the Board not only to accept endowments but also to receive gifts of money for immediate disbursement.

One of the most interesting accomplishments of Dr. Putnam's administration was the establishment of a series of consultantships held by men who are specialists in various fields. They have served to guide the development of the library within their own disciplines and to assist scholars in the pursuit of their researches, much as the members of a university faculty do. This service is still unique among the libraries of this country. Another outstanding service of the Library of Congress to the public has been the preparation from time to time of special bibliographies in a number of fields, many of which are of particular interest to Hispanic studies.

The Hispanic Foundation owes its origin to the establishment in 1927 of a generous fund for the purchase of new books by Mr. Archer M. Huntington, the founder of the Hispanic Society of America in New York City. In the words of the donor, "the books purchased shall relate to Spanish, Portuguese, and South American arts, crafts, literature and history only." Since the creation of this fund, the Library has acquired each year about 2,000 books published in the Hispanic world

within the ten years preceding the date of purchase. This limitation of the fund, stipulated by the donor, has served to encourage youthful authors just entering upon their careers, for often these purchases of their first works have served later to make their names known in this country. Through the operation of the Huntington Fund and the guidance of the Consultant in Hispanic Literature, Dr. David Rubio of the Catholic University of America, and his predecessor, the Library has for the last ten years been performing a cultural undertaking of real importance.

The Hispanic Room

To broaden this activity, to provide more adequately the elements for the study and appreciation of Hispanic culture, both of the mother countries, Spain and Portugal, and of Hispanic America, the Hispanic Foundation has been created. An anonymous friend generously provided funds for its suitable housing within the building of the Library of Congress. The distinguished architect, Paul Philippe Cret, designer of such monuments as the Pan American Union, the Folger Shakespeare Library and the Federal Reserve building in Washington, and the Pennsylvania Museum of the Fine Arts at Philadelphia, was commissioned to create a setting of Hispanic origin which should tend to withdraw the reader from the present to the past ages of Spanish and Portuguese culture.

Indeed, that is precisely the impression that the visitor has on entering the rooms of the Hispanic Foundation. In an atmosphere of cloistered quiet and serenity he beholds an interior whose details carry out faithfully the style of the *Siglo de Oro*, the sixteenth and seventeenth century taste of Spain and Portugal. First, one enters a vaulted vestibule of ample proportions lighted by a splendid silver chandelier

which is an original example of the *mudéjar* style of Toledo. In this room, against a background of armorial tapestries and rich furniture, special exhibitions are held. Rare maps, important documents and autographs, early printed books and pamphlets are arranged there in special displays to commemorate the anniversary of some event of great importance, such as the present exhibition marking the quater-centenary of Hernando de Soto's expedition from Cuba which culminated in the discovery of the Mississippi River.

Later in the year an exhibition will open at the Library of Congress under the auspices of the Hispanic Foundation which will commemorate the four hundredth anniversary of the printing of the first book in the Americas, an event which occurred in Mexico in 1539. This exhibition will trace the history of Mexican printing down to the present day, showing the earliest examples that the Library possesses and the most significant books from the standpoint of beautiful type and binding, and first and rare editions of works of outstanding social, historical, and literary value in the four subsequent centuries. Newspapers, literary periodicals, and journals of all sorts will be represented, as well as political broadsides and caricatures. Following this exhibition another devoted to Portuguese printing in Portugal and its colonies will coincide with the international celebration of the 800th anniversary of Portuguese independence.

From the vestibule the visitor enters the main reading room, a gallery some 130 feet in length. A lofty frieze around both rooms records the names of great historic and literary figures of the different Hispanic countries. There Cervantes stands beside Camões, Magellan beside Columbus. Loyola, El Cid, Lope de Vega, Calderón and Bolívar are also there. In Latin

American letters such great figures as Gonçalves Dias, Bello, M. A. Caro, Sarmiento, Icazbalceta, Ricardo Palma, Rodó, Medina, Montalvo, Heredia and Darío are represented. Immediately adjacent to this room are some 100,000 Hispanic volumes which can be consulted there and in the wood-panelled alcoves about it, in an atmosphere of beauty such as a seventeenth century monastic library might originally have presented. About the lower walls runs a dado of soft blue tiles from Puebla in Mexico; there are curtains of golden brocade at the windows and about the alcoves and balconies, which are of fine wrought iron. Delicately colored leather chairs complement the silvery tonality of the woodwork. A marble tablet which commemorates this splendid gift completes the room, standing between two doors of Spanish design which lead to the administrative offices.

Adjacent to the Hispanic Foundation, a reference room is being arranged, where general works of reference, dictionaries, and current Hispanic periodicals and newspapers will be available for consultation by the general public. Individual studies are here available for mature scholars pursuing special researches. Already the Foundation has been host to three specialists from Brazil, Chile, and Mexico, respectively, and we hope that such visits will, in the future, be made with increasing frequency.

On July 1, the Foundation was opened to readers and a modest staff was organized for administrative purposes. Dr. David Rubio, who has been the Consultant in Hispanic Literature since 1931, was appointed Curator of the Hispanic Collection. Dr. Lewis Hanke of Harvard University was designated as Director of the Hispanic Foundation. Dr. Robert C. Smith of the School of Fine Arts of the University of Illinois subsequently joined the staff as Assistant Director.



Courtesy of Library of Congress

THE HISPANIC ROOM

At the right is the vestibule, ornamented by a rich velvet hanging. The handsome silver chandelier is an original example of the *mudéjar* style of Toledo. Around the walls runs a dado of tiles from Puebla in Mexico.

The resources of the collections

Located in Washington, which has become the diplomatic center for the Spanish-speaking world, the Hispanic Foundation is constantly in touch with the leading personalities in the scholarly and political worlds of Latin America, Spain and Portugal, both in their own countries and when they visit the capital of the United States. The Foundation possesses already a goodly working collection for Hispanic studies which is supplemented by certain rarities within the field which are housed in the various special divisions of the Library. For example, the Rare Book Room possesses many Hispanic items of

real importance. There is a copy of one of the earliest books known to have been printed in Mexico City by Juan Pablos, a Christian Doctrine for the first bishop, Fray Juan de Zumárraga, printed in 1544, and some fifteen other sixteenth century Mexican items, including the rare book on navigation, the first of its kind in the New World, written by Diego García de Palacio and published by Pedro Ocharte in Mexico in 1587. A copy of what is probably the first book printed in South America, a catechism published in Spanish and in two Indian dialects by Antonio Ricardo in Lima in 1585, is also kept here. Among its notable collection of pam-

phlets relating to the Dutch West Indies Company in the New World, there is a mysterious *Brasilsche gelt-sack* of 1647 which may be the first printing in Brazil. There is also the extensive Henry Harrisse bequest containing the interleaved and profusely annotated copies of the writings of that eminent American bibliophile on the Columbus period. Finally, the John Boyd Thacher Collection of autographs contains signed letters of Ferdinand and Isabella, Charles V, the Empress Isabella, and other Spanish sovereigns. It also includes nine Spanish incunabula and an incunabulum from Portugal, as well as the second book printed in Spain, a Latin Sallust published in Valencia in 1475, a Spanish edition of Seneca's Proverbs, which came from the press of Antonio de Centenera at Zamora in 1482, a folio volume of the *Cura de la piedra . . . y cólica rrenal*, by Julián Gutiérrez, a rare work on the diseases of the bladder, printed by Peter Hagembach of Toledo in 1498, and *Los doze trabajos de ercules* by Enrique de Villena de Aragón, from the first press of Juan de Burgos, 1499.

The Division of Manuscripts contains its own Hispanic treasures. Outstanding are two early sixteenth century manuscripts—the Columbus Codex, a book of privileges granted to him, written down at Sevilla with an authentic and contemporary transcript sent to Ferdinand and Isabella of the celebrated Bull *Dudum Quidem* of Alexander VI (26 Sept., 1493), and the so-called Sneyd Codex, a part of the John Boyd Thacher Collection, which is the first Venetian report on the discoveries of Columbus and the Portuguese navigations to India. There is a 1547 Mexican treatise on the native languages, besides a Cortés letter of five years previous, written to Charles V, advising that the Indians of Mexico be put under the protection of the Crown.

In 1929 a valuable collection of Hispanic materials, comprising a mass of early manuscripts relating to the first two centuries of Spanish American history, was presented to the Library by Mr. Edward S. Harkness of New York. The distinguished historian J. Franklin Jameson has described the collection in the following terms:

The Mexican papers, the earliest of which is dated in 1525, only five years after Mexico was won for Spain on the plain of Otumba, have a certain degree of unity in that most of them are connected to some extent with the house of Cortés, many of the documents having arisen from the state trial of Martín Cortés, son of the conquistador. The Peruvian documents are more miscellaneous; in fact, extraordinarily varied in character. There are few aspects of the early history and life of Spanish Peru which are not illuminated in one or another of these thousand and odd documents, extending in date from 1531 to 1651 (with one additional document of 1740). Aside from a certain number of *cédulas* of Charles V and Philip II, they originated in Peru. Most of them are originals, preserved by notaries, while notarial copies were sent to Spain. They come from persons of all sorts, from the Pizarros and Almagros, the viceroys and bishops, down to secretaries and merchants, pilots and sailors, schoolmasters and widows. They include decrees and proclamations of viceroys, orders and instructions of officers to subordinates, contracts and agreements, commercial accounts and letters, minutes of municipalities, manumissions, and many other varieties of documents. . . .

A few specific instances may illustrate the richness of this collection. For example, besides the long series of documents of the Pizarros and Almagros which show the processes of the conquest of Peru from 1531 on, there is the claim put forward by Diego Almagro the younger on account of the killing of his father. There is the imposing tailor's bill of Hernando de Soto. There is the long protest (1554) of some sixty of the chief notables among the conquerors against the new ordinance restricting personal services from the Indians which had been promulgated by Charles V, under the influence of Bishop Las Casas. There are the record books of two Andean frontier communities, begun in 1538 and 1539 respectively. There are provisions regarding protection against the "Lutheran corsairs" of Francis Drake and the services of Indian runners to give warn-

ings of his approach. There are announcements of royal endowments of the University of San Marcos at Lima and of provision for a chair of Indian languages, with injunction that priests and missionaries must learn the language of their flocks. In short, all the round of human life in old Peru finds illustration in this collection.

In 1914 the Library of Congress began a program of copying manuscripts in Spanish archives and libraries relating to the history of the United States, and more particularly to the former Spanish possessions within our borders. Five years later similar work was undertaken in Mexico. Under a substantial Rockefeller grant the work was considerably broadened, and the practice of making transcripts was abandoned, in favor of photostats or photofilm enlargements. As a result, the Division of Manuscripts now possesses a collection of hundreds of thousands of pages copied from the papers in the *Archivo General de Indias*, at Seville, the *Archivo General de Simancas*, the *Archivo Histórico Nacional*, and the *Ministerio de Estado*, at Madrid. From the *Archivo General y Público de la Nación* and the *Archivo General de la Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores* of Mexico City have come many thousands more. In this present year another collection of material containing the correspondence of the Argentine Foreign Office with that nation's diplomatic missions in this country, coming from the *Archivo General de la Nación*, in Buenos Aires, has been added, in addition to a gift from the Carnegie Institution of Washington of manuscripts in Mexican and Spanish archives and libraries relating to the Yucatan region in the sixteenth century. Finally copies are now being made of a private collection of photographs of papers in the old *Archivo General del Hospital de Jesús*, in Mexico City, dealing with Indian labor in Mexico in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and early eighteenth centuries. The total deposit constitutes an

exceptionally rich field for research in various aspects of Hispanic culture.

Finally, there is a special collection of Portuguese manuscripts. It is notable for the richness of its material on the Military Orders and on Sebastianism, that mystic cult that obstinately denied the death of Dom Sebastião on the battle field of Al Kasr al Kebir, maintaining that he still lived and would eventually return to restore the past greatness of his country.

In the Division of Maps is preserved one of the monuments of Hispanic cartography—the manuscript Atlas of the World, completed by the royal Portuguese map-maker, João Teixeira, in 1630. It contains secret maps of the Americas and the Indies. There are also rare portulan charts of the coasts of Central and South America, cartographic manuscripts from the Royal School of Navigation at Cadiz (375 manuscript maps and charts, 1712–1824), depicting various portions of Hispanic America and the former Spanish possessions in this country, Vopel's manuscript 4-inch globe published in 1688, and one of the so-called buccaneer's atlases, made about 1690, showing the coast of western South America. Another important nucleus for Hispanic studies is the Woodbury Lowery Collection of over 300 maps relating to the former Spanish possessions in this country.

Among the more isolated and relatively unknown special collections of the Library of Congress are the Ladino books in the Division of Semitic and Oriental Literature. This material, written in the Judaeo-Spanish vernacular of the Sephardic Jews who were expelled from Spain in the fifteenth century and printed in the Rashi or Rabbinic Hebrew characters, is partly composed of Bible translations and liturgical and rabbinical works, among which are some early editions. For the most part, however, the collection consists of modern

belles-lettres. The Library is eager to add to its books in this field, and is already receiving a current weekly periodical, *La Vara*, published in New York City.

The Division of Orientalia, the largest deposit of Sino-Japanese material outside the Orient, is rich in books printed in Chinese by Portuguese missionaries at Macao and other cities of the Orient. The Library consultants in Islamic and Indic studies stand ready to assist the researches of scholars in the Oriental aspects of Hispanic culture.

The Division of Documents maintains a system of exchange of government publications with all the Hispanic nations. An attempt has been made to obtain complete sets of all recent government gazettes, debates of parliamentary bodies, *memorias*, bulletins, and special publications of government departments and academies and deliberations of provincial assemblies from the nations of Latin America. The resulting collection is probably unrivalled in this country, as are also the files of early government gazettes from Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela, and elsewhere in Latin America.

The Law Library, another of the separate divisions of the Library of Congress, has made a special effort to secure a complete collection of outstanding books and legal journals pertaining to Hispanic culture. Inasmuch as Hispanic scholars have earnestly devoted themselves to the law since the time of Saint Isidore, in the eighth century, this task is a considerable one. The Law Librarian, however, is particularly interested in this field and, with the aid of a special fund available for the purchase of legal materials, has already been able to make the Law Library one of the significant centers for the study of Hispanic law.

Among the outstanding items is the first law book published in the Americas, com-

plied by a Spanish official engaged in administering Spain's vast empire: the famous *Cedulario* of Vasco de Puga, which appeared in Mexico in 1563 as one more of the notable products of the typographical skill of Pedro Ocharte.

Many editions of the fundamental Spanish law code, the *Siete Partidas*, are also found in the Law Library, including the first 1555 edition of the gloss of Gregorio López.

A collection of notable materials usually leads to publication and in the past the Law Library has issued guides to Spanish law as well as to the law of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile. The Law Librarian has recently published a solid volume on *The Background of Hispanic American Law* and has now in preparation a guide to Mexican Law. It is expected that other legal publications will result as scholars continue to tap this rich source for the study of Hispanic law.

Finally, the Division of Music possesses a notable corpus of early printed material on Spanish and Portuguese music, original scores by the Latin American composers Jacopo Fischer and Francisco Casa Bona, and manuscript transcriptions of Manuel de Falla's music by Miguel Llobet. The Division has also a rapidly growing collection of phonograph records of Latin American folk music and a fine auditorium in which, through the Elizabeth Sprague Coolidge and Gertrude Clarke Whittall Foundations, concerts are held regularly. In certain of these concerts the Library's Stradivari instruments are used. Special attention is often paid in these concerts to the masterpieces of Hispanic music.

The aims of the Foundation

The Hispanic Foundation has as its principal function the creation of an unsurpassed collection of published material

pertaining to Spain, Portugal and the countries of Latin America. In this task we shall call for the advice of specialists within the Library and in the learned societies, libraries and universities throughout this country and the Hispanic lands. The Foundation, in spite of its constant purchases of books and periodicals from Latin America, Spain, and Portugal, cannot hope, however, to have a complete record of all contemporary publications, without the active assistance of the authors themselves. Many important articles and monographs are submerged in magazines and newspapers little known to us, or are published in widely dispersed centers. The Foundation has, therefore, adopted the policy of requesting writers to send copies of their works to the Library of Congress, where they become integral parts of the Hispanic Foundation. A box will be provided for each author wherein his separate articles in newspapers and periodicals will be kept. With the friendly aid of all authors who concern themselves with Hispanic studies, it is expected that this collection of scattered contributions will provide a unique and increasingly valuable corpus of material.

Already the response has been generous and the Foundation is daily receiving many important publications which otherwise might not have been available. Relations are being established with the lesser known societies and institutions of research within Latin America, Spain, and Portugal. Especially eager is the Foundation to interest writers and academicians in Portugal and throughout the Portuguese colonies and to have them send their works, not only because the Hispanic Foundation is determined that the Lusitanian world shall be equal in importance with the Spanish, within its sphere of activity, but also because the Portuguese collections of the Library of Congress are already well

developed. In 1927 a notable group of Portuguese books, numbering over 1,500 volumes, was purchased from a private collector. The collection is particularly rich in the Portuguese chronicles of the Kings and the Religious Orders. There is a complete set of pamphlets relating to the expulsion of the Jesuits under the Marquez de Pombal. There is also important and rare material on Portuguese law, the administration of towns and provinces, the constitution, diplomatic relations, and art and archaeology.

Mention should also be made of the *Handbook of Latin American Studies*, which is edited at the Hispanic Foundation. It is an annual publication listing, with critical and informative notes, the outstanding books and articles relating to Latin America which have appeared throughout the world in the course of each year. The *Handbook*, of which the fourth yearly number is about to be published, enjoys the active collaboration of outstanding specialists who prepare sections on the various aspects of Latin American culture in both the humanities and the social sciences, such as anthropology, art, economics, history, literature and law.

Two special aims that the Foundation cherishes are the creation of a comprehensive Hispanic catalogue and the building up of an extensive photographic archive of Hispanic culture. The first of these, the catalogue, will require many years to prepare, but when completed will constitute an essential tool for scholarly work in this field. It will analyze the whole Hispanic collection of the Library of Congress. The catalogue will consist of two sections separately installed. The first will be an author index catalogue, listing all the works of a given author followed by the biographical and critical works pertaining to him. The problem of analyticals will be attacked and when

completed, the catalogue will furnish a record of all articles by or pertaining to a given writer which may have appeared in commemorative volumes, literary and historical reviews and other types of composite publications. The second unit will be a complete subject index catalogue in which all that has been written on a given subject, including analyticals, will be grouped together, as for example, the arts in Minas Gerais, *Gaúcho* literature, or silver production in Peru. The value of this Hispanic catalogue to scholars who come to visit the Library can scarcely be overestimated. It will show at a glance what the Foundation possesses in relation to the rest of the Library of Congress. It will facilitate immeasurably the work of Hispanic scholars and should serve, together with the completeness of the collections, to attract them to the Foundation. It is hoped that the other institutions will avail themselves as time goes on of this thorough catalogue by means of the purchase of duplicate cards.

The second long range objective of the Foundation, the photographic archive, will be expanded to include all such aspects of Hispanic culture as folk art, furniture, costume, religious customs and, in the case of Cuba and Brazil, the diversified crafts of the negro. But principally it would comprehend the fine arts in Spain, Portugal and Latin America. Special emphasis would be placed on the gathering of photographs from the two latter regions, for little attention has as yet been paid to them by art historians. The archive of Hispanic photographs would serve as a basic source of reference for scholarly investigation and research in a field in which at the present they are lamentably wanting, but which is among the richest of artistic provinces.

The scope of the undertaking would be so inclusive as to embrace all periods, from the earliest productions through the Baroque or colonial epochs down to the present day. In the case of Latin America, special attention would be paid to the artistic connections with the mother countries and an effort would be made to establish the indigenous influence in architecture, sculpture and painting.

As its work develops the Foundation hopes to build up its collection so as to draw here specialists in many fields of Hispanic research. This is particularly true of sociology, economics and political science. We are not merely a linguistic, literary, or even historical foundation, but rather an active center for the study of every branch of the culture of Spain, Portugal and Latin America. The Foundation welcomes the visits and queries of mature scholars bent on serious and worthwhile investigations, and its resources are always at their disposal. It will seek to put them in touch with other workers elsewhere in the same or related fields. If their stay at the Library is limited, special arrangements can be made in advance to have the necessary books awaiting their arrival. It is hoped that visitors from Hispanic lands will come with increasing frequency, for only by such contacts can the Foundation continue to fulfill its mission.

The Hispanic Foundation in the Library of Congress is still a very youthful organization. Its purpose is just beginning to be known throughout the Americas. With the proper support from the people of this country and those of the Hispanic world, with their sympathy and participation in its work, it should come to be one of the principal forces for the preservation and dissemination of Hispanic culture.

Pan American Day at the New York World's Fair

PAUL MURPHY

Director, Pan American Pavilion

IN CELEBRATION of the participation of the American Republics at the New York World's Fair, September 22 was designated as Pan American Day, and the members of the Governing Board of the Union were invited to be guests of honor. It was particularly in keeping with the unity of the Americas that this ceremony should have taken place just the day preceding the assembly of statesmen in Panama for consultation under the inter-American agreements of Buenos Aires and Lima.

Shortly after one o'clock on September 22 the members of the Governing Board, headed by the Chairman, the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, were received at the World's Fair Long Island entrance by a twenty-one gun salute and the raising of the Pan American flag. Tractor trains were waiting to convey the members of the Governing Board and their wives to Perylon Hall, where the diplomats were welcomed by the Hon. Harvey D. Gibson, Chairman of the Board of the New York World's Fair, and the Hon. Fiorello H. LaGuardia, Mayor of the City of New York. The Latin American Commissioners General to the Fair, Consuls General in New York, officers of the Chambers of Commerce, and executives of the various transportation and communication companies serving Latin America joined the official party for a luncheon given by the World's Fair Commission in honor of the members of the Governing Board.

Afterwards, the guests went to the plaza of the Federal Building for the official ceremonies of the day at three o'clock. Starting at the Theme Center of the Fair—the Perisphere, a large globe symbolizing the world about us, and the Trylon, a slender triangular spire representing aspiration—they passed the blue-tiled fountains, sunk in the Continental Mall, and proceeded slowly around the Lagoon of Nations. This lagoon is at one end of the great Court of Peace, along which the flags of all nations wave above the pavilions of their countries. As the party moved up the Court of Peace, trumpets heralded their approach, and the eight thousand people seated in the Court cheered and applauded. At three o'clock the members of the Governing Board and other speakers on the program ascended the plaza of the Federal Building, the home of the United States Commission to the Fair. This impressive white structure faces the Trylon and Perisphere, its two massive towers typifying the judicial and legislative branches of the Government. The towers are joined by a long central portion which represents the executive branch and is fronted by thirteen columns, recalling the thirteen original states.

The program commenced with the playing of *The Star Spangled Banner* and the raising of the Pan American flag over the Federal Building, while the official party stood at attention on the speakers' platform overlooking the vast throng. News-

reel and newspaper photographers' cameras and television apparatus began to click. The entire program was carried to all parts of the world in one of the most extensive broadcasts in radio history; the telecast was best seen within a radius of 50 miles. Reporters seated at the foot of the platform picked up their telephones and dispatched the facts to the world. The microphones of five radio hook-ups were turned to Mr. E. F. Roosevelt, Director of Foreign Participation at the New York World's Fair, as he introduced the presiding officer, the Vice Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, His Excellency, Señor Don José Richling, Minister of Uruguay to the United States. The Minister, in dedicating the day, said:

In celebrating Pan American Day at the New York World's Fair, we are not only paying tribute to an important continental movement, but we are also commemorating a significant anniversary. It is just fifty years ago, almost to the day, that the representatives of the American Republics assembled at Washington for the purpose of taking counsel with one another as to the best means of establishing closer economic and cultural ties between the nations of this hemisphere. It was also at this first International Conference of American States that the first step was taken toward the establishment of the Pan American Union.

In view of the international situation which confronts us at this time, the exercises of today possess a special significance. It is a matter of no small import that the twenty-one republics of America are giving to the world an example of an entire continent not only at peace but irrevocably committed to the orderly and peaceful settlement of all disputes that may arise between them. Cooperation, confidence, fair dealing, and mutual assistance have been the keynotes of the Pan American movement. It is, indeed, a record of which the American nations may well feel proud.

At the conclusion of the Vice Chairman's remarks, the flags of the twenty-one member nations of the Pan American Union were raised in a colorful and impressive ceremony. While the United States Navy

Band, under the direction of Lieutenant Jensen, played excerpts from the national anthems of the countries, Boy Scouts unfurled the flags and stood at attention in salute to the twenty-one "good neighbors."

The program then continued with a greeting by Harvey D. Gibson on behalf of the New York World's Fair Administration. He said in part:

Certainly the proudest possession of the Western Hemisphere today is the Pan American Spirit. Without it, this Fair could not have come into being. Without it, few of us here could have any hope for the future of civilization. With it, as President Roosevelt has promised in behalf of the United States, "We shall continue to strive under Divine Providence with heart and soul and strength to serve the cause of peaceful humanity by setting an example."

Across the Atlantic, distrust, antagonisms and war fill the minds and hearts of men. In the Americas, the spirit of cooperation and confidence is growing stronger day by day, as it has grown since that day in 1826, when Simón Bolívar, at the Congress of Panama, first set forth a concept of American solidarity that inspired the conferences of the American Republics of our time.

The Pan Americanism of today moves as a mighty force toward commercial and cultural world friendship. The commerce of the twenty-one American Republics is a ten to twelve billion dollar constructive business. The culture of these republics is still sound currency throughout the world. It must remain so for the benefit of posterity.

In behalf of the Fair Corporation, I wish to thank the Pan American Union for arranging today's significant program, and to voice our appreciation of the displays set up in the Pan American Pavilion on Presidential Row South.

The Pavilion has already had about one million visitors. Its most spectacular display is a huge activated relief map of the twenty-one co-joined American nations, showing their principal products and their means of transportation and communication. I recommend study of that map to all who can possibly get here to see it, for it is a graphic representation of continental solidarity.

Mr. Hull, you greatly honor the Fair by your visit. In these days when no man can foretell what perils may lie ahead for the Americas, we are confident that you will further instruct us in the noble concepts of Simón Bolívar, James G. Blaine,



Courtesy of New York World's Fair

PAN AMERICAN DAY AT THE NEW YORK WORLD'S FAIR

A throng of eight thousand persons gathered in the Court of Peace to salute the Americas. The Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State and Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, was the principal speaker.

Elihu Root, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, Cordell Hull, and your colleagues on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

The Hon. Fiorello LaGuardia, Mayor of the City of New York, spoke next, beginning with a definition of Pan America. "Pan America today is something more than a geographical definition," he declared. "Pan America is a democracy of democracies. Pan America is an uncharted world power dedicated to the progress of civilization, to the happiness of man and to the maintenance of peace. Pan Americanism recognizes the complete and absolute sovereignty of every independent country on the western hemisphere where a nation, like an individual in a democracy,

is measured by its soul and not by its size. In the same way as we meet here today, Pan American Congresses have been held from time to time, but particularly during the past seven years as they meet, each nation is but one individual, casting one vote with the distinct understanding that the wisdom of the majority shall prevail. There is no big brother in new Pan America. We are all brothers, one great union of equal republics. Pan America has learned to avoid irritations and to value cooperation and mutual help. Pan America has learned the futility of war and has charted a course for permanent and lasting peace. . . ."

He continued: "Pan America seeks noth-

ing in the word but its own tranquillity, prosperity and happiness, but of these it does not want a monopoly. It wants to share peace and happiness with the entire world. The people of Pan America offer to the world the way of living as good neighbors with mutual respect and love for each other.

... "Cordell Hull has been one of the great leaders for the solidarity of the nations of the western world which has brought about this new Pan America, and Pan America is now giving more peace to more people, over more territory, and for a longer period of time than any system yet known to the world . . . "

The second half of the program was devoted to the principal speaker of the day, the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States and Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. The Secretary's address follows:

Mr. Chairman, Members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, Mr. Gibson, distinguished guests, ladies and gentlemen:

In the name of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, I should like, first of all, to express our gratitude to the management of the New York World's Fair for their courtesy in designating this day as Pan American Day. For myself, I welcome this opportunity to make a few brief remarks regarding the significance of the Pan American movement in the present singularly unhappy juncture of world affairs.

Around us here are striking achievements of scientists and engineers, of architects and artists, revealing what could be done for the advancement of the human race if only their genius could be given free scope for constructive effort everywhere. There is a poignant contrast between what we behold here and the soul-searing pictures of suffering and destruction brought to us hourly from those portions of the earth in which armed hostilities are now taking place. That contrast should strengthen in all of us a determination to assure an organization of world affairs which would make possible the use of such magnificent technical skill as is here assembled solely and uninterruptedly for the creative work of peaceful progress.

The attainment of such an organization of world affairs has always been one of the underlying purposes of the American Republics. It has always been one of the principal objectives of the great movement of cooperation and solidarity, the ties of which, happily, have grown ever stronger among our nations.

Today, the American Republics are supremely fortunate in that they are at peace within and without our Hemisphere. Each of our Republics is ready to defend itself against any threat to its security that may come from any part of the world. At the same time, it is the unalterable desire of each and every one of our nations to remain at peace ourselves and to exercise all influence in our power toward the end that just and enduring peace may become firmly established everywhere.

Less than a quarter of a century ago, twelve of our American Republics were involved in a world war. When that ordeal ended, all of us were determined to devote our best efforts toward the establishment of a world order in which recourse to war as an instrument of accomplishing national aims would be unthinkable. Within the limitations of its own traditional policy, each of our nations has since sought to make its fullest practicable contribution toward the attainment of that objective.

This attitude on our part is a direct result of our own American experience. From the very beginning of their independent existence, the American Republics have sought to shape their international policies in accordance with certain cardinal principles. Crucial among these are, first, recognition that each nation is a juridically equal member of the family of nations; and second, recognition that civilization and progress are possible only when there is universal acceptance of order, implemented by international law, and based upon justice, fair dealing, mutual respect, cooperation and the sanctity of agreements, freely made, faithfully observed, and honorably altered by peaceful methods when need arises.

By applying these principles among ourselves, we have gradually built up in the Western Hemisphere an international system which is our American way of peace.

Among the twenty-one American Republics are found various degrees of numerical strength and of military power, as well as different degrees of wealth and of industrial and financial organization. Yet we have arranged and have managed to live side by side. Among us, small countries do not feel menaced by their powerful neighbors. Among us, no group of nations is allied against

any other group. Our peace does not rest on fear.

There are, to be sure, causes for controversy here as there are in other parts of the world. But mechanisms for resolving them have been set up by mutual agreement. These mechanisms are in operation, and there is a growing realization that just claims advanced by any member or members of the group will be fairly dealt with.

All this is the fruit of our persistent endeavors to give form and substance to the ideals which we profess. We have striven for years to remove causes of distrust and friction between and among our several countries. Many of us, including the United States, have had to recognize that mistakes were made and that rectification was in order. We have had to overcome false pride and to correct errors. Much of this has been done; and the doing of it has established faith and trust among the American nations.

Our periodic inter-American conferences have played a great role in this development. I should like to recall to your attention the work done by the three most recent ones.

At the Seventh International Conference of American States, held at Montevideo in 1933, substantial progress was made toward removing the individual causes for controversy through agreement on a treaty to govern the rights and duties of states.

In 1936, the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, at Buenos Aires, considered the need of strengthening the methods by which the peace of the American nations could be safeguarded and maintained. One result of that conference was a Convention for the Maintenance, Preservation and Reestablishment of Peace, which provided for consultation between the twenty-one republics in case the peace of the western world were menaced from within or from without.

Finally, at Lima, last year, the Eighth International Conference of American States, in its basic Declaration, affirmed the solidarity of the nations of America, based on "the similarity of their republican institutions, their unshakable will for peace, . . . their absolute adherence to the principles of international law, of the equal sovereignty of states, and of individual liberty without religious or racial prejudices". With this in mind, the twenty-one Republics affirmed their determination to maintain these principles, to defend them against any threat from outside our hemisphere, and, in the event of danger, to consult among themselves as to measures which might be taken in cooperation for the common safety.

At this very moment representatives of all of

the American governments are assembling in Panama for the purpose of taking the measures necessary to safeguard the peace of the Americas. Here we see the functioning of an international system of cooperative peace, designed to assure internal concord and external security for the nations of our Hemisphere.

At all three of the Conferences, important steps were taken in the direction of a mitigation of unreasonable trade barriers among our various countries and between each of them and the rest of the world. At all three, means were devised for strengthening cultural and other relationships—those indispensable foundations of international understanding and cooperation—again, among our various countries and between each of them and the rest of the world. The resolutions and recommendations of the Conferences along these lines have been or are being put into effect by the American Republics. Here, too, we see the functioning of a system of cooperative peace.

We, of the Americas, are justly proud of these achievements. And yet we know that, however precious, however gratifying is this onward march of inter-American solidarity and cooperation, it is not enough by itself to give our nations the fullest attainable measure of security, progress, and prosperity.

In every line of national endeavor, each of our countries is thoroughly conscious of the inter-related and inter-connected character of the present-day world. Under modern conditions, peace and stability are indivisible in the sense that a major breakdown of one or the other in any important portion of the globe inevitably affects the life of the entire world. For several years, the impairment of normal international economic relations and the disastrous deterioration of international morality in many parts of the earth have retarded our material progress and have filled us with anxiety and apprehension. For the past two years, the conflict that has been going on in far-off Asia has cast its shadow upon us, too. The tragic hostilities in Europe—the greatest calamity of all—have been in operation but three short weeks, and already their fateful effects have laid a heavy hand upon many phases of the lives of our nations.

We know that our nations will be materially poorer and spiritually poorer in proportion as the flames of protracted war impair or destroy, in the areas directly involved, the foundations of modern civilization.

Knowing all this, our nations have sought steadfastly to exert their influence in the direction

of an avoidance of a widespread war anywhere. We have endeavored, by appeal and by example, to convince other nations that a system of international relations based upon action in conformity with the dictates of international law and morality, upon fair and fruitful cooperation among nations for the greatest good of all, and upon sound, healthy and mutually beneficial trade relations, is practicable and attainable; that a system, based on these principles, is far more conducive to the welfare of each and every nation than a state of affairs in which callous disregard of law and morality, with resort to brute force and unbridled violence, are the methods deliberately chosen for the attainment of national aims.

Now that a major war in Europe is a grim reality, there is greater necessity than ever before for all nations, still in a position to do so, to increase their exertions for the preservation of those fundamental principles of civilized international relations, through the application of which alone, we of the Americas are firmly convinced, the progress of the human race can be maintained. There is no other basis of enduring peace, of cultural and material advancement for nations and for individuals, of social and political institutions founded upon human freedom and the dignity of the human soul.

It is our devout hope that the conflict now raging in Europe will not extinguish upon that continent the light of that resplendent civilization with which it has, in modern times, illumined the world. It is our fervent prayer that *all* nations may find in themselves sufficient strength of conscience, of reason, of the very instinct of self-preservation to return—before it is too late—to the tried and proven highway of those basic principles of international relations which, for the moment, continue to function fully only in our Hemisphere and in a constantly diminishing area elsewhere.

In the New World we have found that acceptance of these fundamental principles has made for progress and peace. To these same principles all nations can adhere, whenever they choose, and so, together with us, attain once more the blessing of an ordered and law-governed world. Meanwhile, in these hours of tragic trial, it is our duty to ourselves to keep these principles alive in our own midst and to make intensive and unceasing effort toward bringing about adherence to them throughout the world.

In tribute to Mr. Hull's untiring efforts to promote closer relations among the

American Republics, the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission took this occasion to present to him an Inter-American Peace Medal. Thomas J. Watson, Chairman of the Arbitration Commission, made the presentation with warm words of praise of the Secretary's work and accomplishments, saying:

Mr. Chairman, Secretary Hull, Mayor LaGuardia, Ambassadors and Ministers from the Latin American Republics, honored guests, ladies and gentlemen:

We are meeting today not only to hear an important message from a great Secretary of State, but to pay honor to a man who has made outstanding contributions toward bringing about clearer political understanding between the countries of the western hemisphere and, through his reciprocal trade agreements, toward improving trade relations between the United States and many other countries of the world.

Of all the notable achievements that make the impressive record of the Department of State, the advances made through the efforts of Secretary Hull in the building of good will and understanding and friendship will always be among the greatest contributions to world progress.

Through the better understanding between the twenty-one republics of our hemisphere, a solid foundation for peace in our part of the world has been established. I feel that political peace, based on sound economic relations between the countries of the western hemisphere, in time will have an important influence toward bringing about the same conditions in other parts of the world. Secretary Hull's Latin American policies stand for cooperation with the other countries of the world, carefully avoiding any tendency toward isolation of the western hemisphere.

Not only has he built for the people of this generation, but the generations to come will owe him a debt of gratitude for the perseverance, courage, and sincerity he has brought to all of our Pan American relations.

As a representative of his government, and as a citizen of our hemisphere, he is an outstanding champion, not only of fair political and trade relations between nations, but of fair and humane political policies within nations. He stands for justice and fair consideration for people everywhere, regardless of race, creed, or color. It is his sincerity, courage, vision, and judgment that we follow, and it is his integrity and honor we trust.



Courtesy of New York World's Fair

A MEDAL FOR SECRETARY HULL

On behalf of the Inter-American Arbitration Commission, Thomas J. Watson presented to Secretary Hull a medal commemorating his services to inter-American peace. Mayor La Guardia of New York stands in the background.

It is my great privilege today to convey to our Secretary of State something of the esteem and affection in which he is held by his own people and by all other people of the Latin American republics.

In his name, the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission has created a medal which symbolizes the feeling and appreciation we have for him.

It seems especially fitting that this Commission, created at the Seventh International Conference of American States in 1933, and upon which all twenty-one republics are represented, should be the medium through which we bring him today this token of our recognition of the distinguished service he has rendered in the cause of inter-American peace, and our deep appreciation of the benefits he has brought to humanity throughout the world.

In presenting you with this medal, sir, we ex-

press our confidence in your leadership. We pledge our continued support in the tremendous work you are doing to strengthen the ties of friendship and good will which bind together these twenty-one republics.

Your efforts have created in the western hemisphere a community of good neighbors whose individual interest is to aid in promoting the well-being, security and peace of all our people, and in doing this you have created for yourself a permanent place in our hearts.

We hope this medal will always serve to remind you of our gratitude.

The Secretary, in expressing his thanks for the honor conferred upon him, replied: "I am receiving this medal not as an individual, but as a representative of you, and of all who have been strong influences in

fostering commercial arbitration. Today most of the serious international difficulties are rooted in economics. Never before have economic problems been so serious, and you have done everything to keep alive the fundamentals of international unity."

The program concluded with selections by the Paulist Choristers, the famous choir organized and directed by Father Finn. Consisting of ninety boys and men, this group was founded thirty-four years ago. In the years of its existence it has toured the United States and Europe, appearing before Pope Pius X in the Throne Room of the Vatican. In presenting the Choristers, the Vice Chairman of the Governing Board said: "The Paulist Choristers raise their voices today as harbingers of peace, amity, and the brotherhood of man."

After the official ceremonies, the Secretary of State and the members of the Governing Board adjourned to the Federal Building to receive, with the Assistant Commissioner General of the United States, Charles M. Spofford, fifteen hundred invited guests. Refreshments were served in the garden of the Federal Building, where an orchestra played Latin American music.

Color films of Latin America were shown in the Federal Theatre during the reception.

At five o'clock the official party returned to the plaza of the Federal Building for a special review in the Court of Peace of the United States Army, Navy, and Marine Corps Units, after which the flags of the United States and the Pan American Union were lowered from the Federal Building.

With this ceremony the official program for the day was brought to an end.

In the evening a buffet supper was given in honor of the official party by the National Advisory Committee in its building at the World's Fair, with Mrs. Vincent Astor and Mr. and Mrs. Winthrop Aldrich as hosts.

At nine o'clock there was a special display of the illuminated fountains in the Lagoon of Nations. While a band played Victor Herbert's *Panamericana*, the five colors found in the flags of the American Republics were featured in bright designs. The official party witnessed the spectacle from the lounge of the Federal Building, and thousands of visitors to the Fair filled the Court of Peace and the terraces of the pavilions surrounding the Lagoon to see this final salute of the World's Fair to the Union of the American Republics.

Thus Pan American Day at the Fair passed in a spirit of dignity, peace, and friendly gaiety among all those who came to share in its celebration.



Courtesy of Grace Line

AN INDIAN FESTIVAL IN A LITTLE ANDEAN TOWN

Some Latin American Festivals

I. Fiestas in Peru

FRANCISCO J. HERNÁNDEZ

Chief, Travel Division, Pan American Union

THE NUMBER OF TRAVELERS interested in the Indian lore typical of many Latin American countries increases steadily as information is circulated in the United States regarding the fiestas, fairs, and many indigenous or hybrid ceremonies which are to be found off the beaten track, in the heart of the countries to the south. This interest attaches particularly to the old customs which bring together sometimes many thousands of rural dwellers in order to celebrate a religious ceremony,

the gathering of a new harvest, or some other outstanding event.

Throughout Latin America all the familiar religious and national holidays, such as Christmas, Easter, New Year, Carnival, Pan American Day (April 14), Columbus Day (Día de la Raza), etc., are observed, and so it is in Peru. With its lofty mountains and valleys high in the Andes, it is especially rich in festivals which retain most of the original picturesqueness and color. Yet one does not have to stray



Courtesy of Grace Line

FROM ALL OVER PERU INDIAN GROUPS COME FOR THE FIESTA DE AMANCAES ON
JUNE 24

far away from the large centers near the coast to find some of the gayest celebrations, which attract large crowds from both city and country.

The Fiesta de Amancaes

The city of Lima, for instance, relishes the popular festival held every Saint John's Day (June 24) on the Pampa de Amancaes, a broad plain on the outskirts of the city, named for the yellow flowers to be found there at that particular time. In colonial days the Fiesta de Amancaes was one of the most colorful celebrations of the year in a country fond of festivals. "Everyone prepared for it long in advance," writes a well-known folklorist, "and on the great day people took to the road arrayed in their best clothes, on foot, in carriages, or on horseback. At the Pampa, to the sound of the guitar, harp, and a box beaten

with both hands, couples went through the lively steps of the *marinera*,¹ sometimes called the *zamacueca*: a man and girl dancing opposite each other, each with a handkerchief in an upraised hand, waving gracefully in time with the music. The musicians sang many verses, some of them improvised.

"Today, however, people go more prosaically in automobiles and other modern conveyances, and the spectators sit in grandstands, watching the Indians who, dressed in picturesque bright-colored costumes, come from all over the country to dance their folk-dances and play their plaintive music on the native flute, harp, or Pan's pipes."

This traditional festival of Amancaes was several years ago proclaimed officially by the Peruvian Government the "Day of the

¹ See page 653.—EDITOR .

Indian." To the traveler it affords an unusual opportunity to see many native customs which otherwise he could observe only after long and hazardous journeys into the interior. As a traditional phase of the festival women sell typical Peruvian dishes in small stands erected along the road to the Pampa and around it.

Feast of the Invention of the Cross

Writing from Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Incas in the Peruvian highlands, J. Uriel García has described one of the festivals of mixed Indian and Christian origin. His description may be summarized as follows:

The feast of the Invention of the Cross

(May 3) is one of the occasions celebrated throughout the Peruvian Andes. It has replaced the Inca ceremonies called *Aymuray* or *Ayllihuay*, which meant "harvest month," for as Peru lies south of the equator, the seasons there are the reverse of ours. *Aymuray* was a nocturnal festival, a ceremony in honor of winter nights, of the life-giving forces sent to earth from the starry skies to make the soil fertile.

After the cross had become the prevailing religious symbol, it appeared everywhere, on the top of lofty peaks, at crossroads, in simple village squares, in patios and vestibules, until now it has become the guardian of the home. These crosses are of all kinds, from elaborate processional



Courtesy of Grace Line

INDIANS CELEBRATING THE FIESTA DE AMANCAES, LIMA, PERU



AN ECUADOREAN MUSICIAN

In the highlands of South America the Indians still make Pan-pipes of reeds.

crosses, which are the pride of parish churches, to simple ones woven of straw, which stand on the thatched roofs of humble dwellings. When the annual festival comes around, all these crosses are taken from their stands and carried in procession to the nearest church, where a mass is said for them.

But while the Christian symbol has replaced the pagan, many of the old native customs still persist, in only slightly altered form. The eve of the Invention of the Cross, called, in a mixture of the Indian and Spanish languages, *cruzvelacuy*, is a holiday night, of general and carefree gaiety. All the mountains and highways

where there are crosses are alight with bonfires. In the towns and villages, in squares, patios, and vestibules, are improvised altars. A canvas awning or other protection marks the altar, around which the celebration centers. In the background stands the cross, covered with many-colored ornaments and floral offerings, bright with hundreds of electric bulbs or votive candles. At one side are great round jugs of *chicha*, to help make the occasion livelier; bottles of liquor; a great tin kettle which, thanks to an ingenious contrivance, begins to whistle when the water boils. The water is for "whistling tea"—maté or some other beverage pleasing to native palates. On benches and seats of adobe sit the town matrons, elderly women with their many felt skirts, and maidens waiting for their sweethearts. Indian servants stand near by, the women with children in their arms, the men in their inevitable ponchos.

By the roadside, with the frosty winter night as a background, is the Indian merrymaking, simple, ingenuous, to the sound of guitar and flute. In the patio, the mestizos are gay, with violin and harp. In the aristocratic mansion, at the top of the scale, the party listens to guitars and melodeons. But everywhere the improvised Andine altar is the background to the feast.

The Market at Huancayo

A typical market is that which takes place every Sunday on the Calle Real of Huancayo, in central Peru, now reached by highway as well as railway over the Andes from Lima. It dates from very early times, mention of it being found in documents written in 1770 and 1780. To enable the country-folk to hold their fair on Sundays, all shops and public institutions close their doors on Thursdays, and remain open on Sundays, by municipal order, conducting business as usual.

That the scene leaves a lasting impression on the traveler may be gathered from the following note received at the Travel Division: "From the early hours of the morning the farm-people come streaming into the city, bearing bundles of produce on their backs or packing it on donkeys, and driving before them cattle, sheep, pigs and horses, all of which are to be put up for sale during the day. The Calle Real, at nine o'clock, presents an amazing and truly startling appearance. At either side of the thoroughfare, which is closed to all vehicular traffic, are dozens of roughly-made stalls and booths, filled with such a diversity of merchandise and wares that even a description is difficult. Fruit and vegetables are found at all points, mingled with live poultry, eggs, milk, cheese, squealing pigs, hand-woven rugs, blankets, ponchos, curiously carved and brightly painted gourds and bric-a-brac, rolls of leather, beautiful filigree handworked silver cigarette cases and matchboxes from Ayacucho, spoons and tiny plates of the same material and origin, carpets and mats of positively dazzling hues, food of various varieties, chicha, wines, spirits, etc." It says, furthermore, that "the wide, long, street is filled with dust, babel, movement, humanity and dogs, from the chaos of which it is difficult, once in, to get out," and that Dante might well have written about the Huancayo Fair, "All hope abandon, ye who enter Here." And the fair goes on until night falls and everybody goes home.²

But let us get back closer to Lima and a fiesta of relatively new creation.

Festival of the Vintage

Festivals have been observed from times immemorial in the vineyards of France and the Rhineland to celebrate the in-

² For a more detailed description of the Huancayo market, see "Heigh-ho, Come to the Fair", by Elizabeth Lineback Ledig, BULLETIN, May 1933.



ANOTHER ECUADOREAN MUSICIAN

A curious form of harp is much used in Ecuador by native musicians.

gathering of the grape harvest. But, (as *The West Coast Leader* points out, though grapes have been grown in Peru for nearly four hundred years and the wine industry is almost as old, it was not until two years ago that a *Fiesta de la Vendimia* (Festival of the Vintage) was celebrated for the first time in the neighborhood of Lima. The Surco valley, to the east of Barranco, widely known for the quality of the grapes and wines produced there, was selected as the ideal locale for the celebration, the happy idea of Don Pedro Ventura, whose family name has been famous in the wine industry for many generations.

With the cooperation of the lessees of



Courtesy of Grace Line

A DANCE AT COPACABANA, BOLIVIA

Guests in the new hotels erected by the Bolivian Government on Lake Titicaca can enjoy such spectacles as this. The main festivals of the year in honor of the Virgin of Copacabana take place on February 2 and August 5.

other vineyards in the same valley, he organized a "Grape and Wine Week" (*Semana de la Uva y el Vino*), centered around San José de Surco. The main objects were to improve the quality of grapes grown in the valley, reduce the cost of production, and raise funds for the improvement of the roads linking Surco with the vineyards in the valley and with Lima. Great importance is attached to the latter, since in the summer months the approaches to the town are apt to be thick with dust. This injures the vines and keeps visitors away.

The new festival caught on at once, attracting numerous visitors from far and wide, eager to take part in the fun. The second celebration proved to be an even greater success, yet was surpassed by this

year's, organized on a bigger and more ambitious scale.

March is generally selected as the month of the festival. On the opening day, the ringing of the Harvest Bell summons the faithful to attend Thanksgiving services in the parish church. This is followed by the coronation of the "Queen of the Vintage" in the main square, a ceremony performed by the Mayor of Surco, who receives from Her Majesty the first fruits of the grape harvest. Following the ceremony, the Queen and her court are entertained as befits their royal status. At night fireworks flash through the sky while music fills the air. The entire week is given to joyous celebration, ending with a *corso*, or parade of floats, in the town park.

II. Carnival in Brazil

HEITOR BASTOS TIGRE

Editorial Division, Pan American Union

NOTHING reflects the soul and the temperament of a nation better than its folk customs. They are a faithful mirror of its real nature, an index to its traditions and temperament. A sedate Englishman, for instance, cannot be imagined whirling about like a jitterbug, nor can Japan be thought of as the home of the rumba or conga. In each country there is a different conception of having a good time, just as there are different dishes and varied modes of dress.

In Brazil Carnival is the popular festival *par excellence*. There are a great many folk festivals and customs in Brazil, perhaps more than in any other American country; this may have come about as a reflection of the mingled elements of the population. Among these are the blessing of the new fishing boats and the waters on the day of SS. Peter and Paul (June 29), the flower festival at the spring equinox, and the bon-fires on St. John's Eve (June 23) which, although they have a certain general relationship, are celebrated with varying customs in different parts of the country. Carnival, however, is practically the same everywhere and is undoubtedly the most representative of all Brazilian folk festivals.

Started in the days when Brazil was still an empire, the celebration of Carnival gradually changed until at present it has become a great event and, in addition to being an occasion of popular rejoicing, is a tourist attraction that brings to Rio de Janeiro every year thousands and thousands of travelers eager to see a typical Brazilian festival.

It takes place, of course, during the last

three days before Lent. From Christmas on the approaching ceremonies of Momus are the main topics of conversation. This monarch of merry-making presides over Carnival; it used to be the custom to bury him on the last day. All the Carnival groups gathered in the various theaters of the city and conducted a funeral service for this noble and illustrious personage to the sound of the *Te Deum*, interrupted every minute or two by the singing of thousands of persons, who broke into the tunes that had had the greatest success in the preceding three days.

At the beginning of this century it was still customary to represent at the Carnival some historic episode, and the groups who paraded the street on Shrove Tuesday almost always took off some event in current history with which everyone was familiar. Carnival at that time was a social event which interested everyone and was especially a festival to which the most distinguished poets and writers imparted their own brilliance and prestige. As the years went by, the celebrations gradually changed, losing much of their individuality and acquiring characteristics more in harmony with the era of the radio, the motion picture, and television. Today it is essentially a people's holiday and clearly shows the characteristics and gaiety of the simple, kind-hearted Brazilian.

One of the greatest attractions nowadays is undoubtedly the Carnival songs. They are the real mainspring of all the festivities. Many come from the poorer districts of the capital; they often turn on a proverb or some event of the past year. Others

Para seguir Para acabar %

Canto

1.

2.

Ao % A' Introd.

Copyright by E. S. Mangione, São Paulo—Rio de Janeiro

A CARNIVAL SONG, RIO, THE MARVELOUS CITY, BY ANDRÉ FILHO

are adaptations of old songs arranged in the rhythm of the samba, the march, or the maxixe. There is always one which is the success of the year and which seems to echo throughout the city for the three days of Carnival.

One local spectacle which attracts everyone is the appearance of groups largely composed of negroes who, after long practice, parade the streets on the second day, in the hope of winning some of the prizes offered by a newspaper or other organizations. The music for these groups is played on primitive native instruments, besides the usual guitar, ukulele, banjo, and various wind instruments. It has a rhythm all its own that seems to invite everyone to the dance.

In ballrooms of clubs and societies there is a unique celebration. Thousands of persons mill about endlessly in a dizzying whirl. Here the *frevo*, the fandango, or the maxixe are at their height.

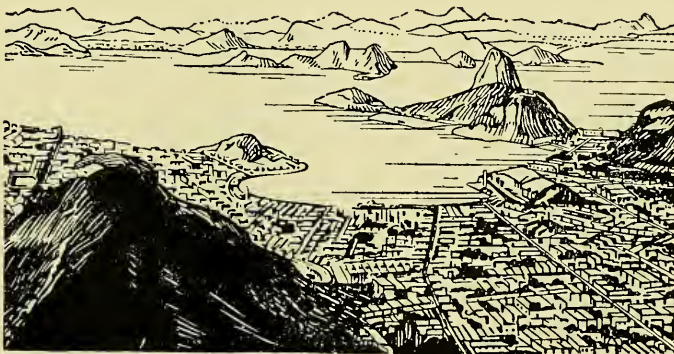
Usually each year one idea is dominant, and the whole city seems to put on the same costume. Some time ago the town

was invaded by Russian Cossacks, and a little later by French and American sailors and by Tyrolese. At other times crowds of Spanish girls, or aviators, or Pierrots and Columbines, lend the streets a gay aspect.

The same groups whom we find dancing at night take part in the interminable parade of automobiles which moves slowly through the city in a never-ending battle of serpentine and confetti.

The last day is devoted to the carnival floats carrying a series of tableaux having to do with the principal events of the year. The whole city turns out to look at them. Last year at Carnival one of the associations chose the Good Neighbor policy as its central theme, and presented in one of its principal tableaux the portraits of Presidents Vargas and Roosevelt, thus recalling the traditional friendship between Brazil and the United States.

After the floats have passed, Carnival is over and little by little the city returns to its normal condition. Next morning everything seems to have been a dream.





From El Boletín Latinoamericano de Música

"PERUVIAN COUNTRY DANCE" BY CAMILO BLAS

Folk Dances of Spanish America

IF THERE is any popular art that springs directly from the emotions and passions of the people, it is dancing. In no other way does a people so fully find recreation and self-expression. The folk dances of Spanish America, although having different rhythms and names—*pericón*, *cueca*, *marinera*, *tamborito*, *sanjuanito*, *son*, *jarabe*, *bambuco*—have greater similarities than differences, and may be said to typify its underlying unity.

The *pericón*, a rural dance accompanied by words as well as music, is native to the pampas of both Argentina and Uruguay. The words are generally improvised, often by *payadores*, or wandering minstrels, who cap each other's witty or sentimental verses. The *pericón* is a group dance, a hearty occasion. It combines many elements as it proceeds from recitation to song, from song to movement, from movement to dancing, and from dancing to recitation. The couples taking part form a circle, and their feet begin to shuffle in

the slow but definite rhythm of the dance, while kerchiefs are set fluttering. Every now and then there are lusty shouts, not inarticulate shouts, but local quips shouted at the top of the lungs. The men's silver spurs jingle, and the beribboned braids of the *chinas* fly in the air. The circle is momentarily broken as each couple dances together—a parody on the wedding ceremony—but it soon forms again, and the dancers intersperse their round with lively jests.

Cattle-raising people, isolated in the middle of the pampa, know the strategic and friendly virtues of the circle, the ring, the enclosure. They are accustomed to eating together around the fire where a recently slaughtered steer is cooking. The *pericón* has been interpreted as a symbol of tribal cohesion and spirit; it also incorporates the wary movements of the rodeo. It is danced in a ring, and men form a ring to approach the cattle they are going to lasso. The rope traces spirals, parabolas, and circles, fearful halos in the air; hands do the same in the dance. The *pericón* emphasizes clannishness, solidarity; it is

Based chiefly on "Danza", by Luis Alberto Sánchez, published in the "Revista de Educación," Santiago, Chile.

optimistic but not enthusiastic, with the optimism of the man who has conquered the pampa, yet with a certain underlying note of fatalism that clouds the joy of the conqueror.

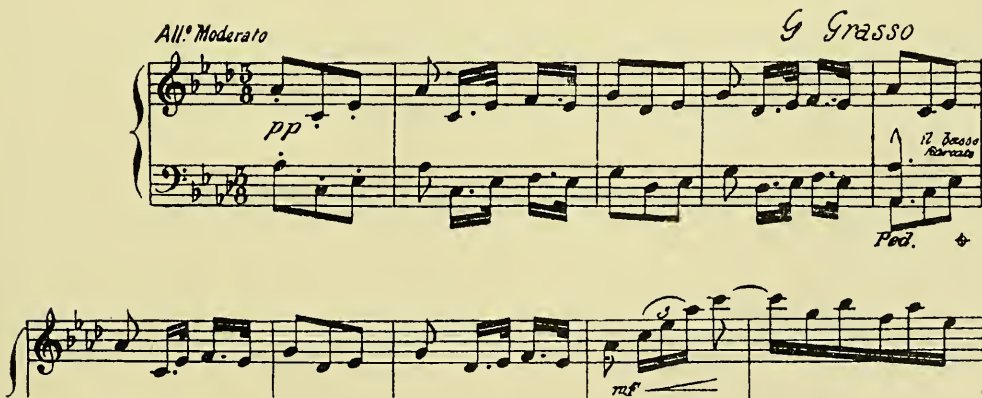
The Chilean *cueca* is different; it is individualistic, imperious, headstrong. The man, dressed in Chilean cowboy garb, advances with the insolence of one who expects an easy victory. The woman begins by being self-willed, but coquettish, hiding her face, only to show it again as though overcome by remorse. The man advances, like a swaggering Don Juan, his kerchief fluttering from his upraised hand as though from a mast. From his sash can be seen the sharp point of the traditional "pot-hook", as his indispensable knife is familiarly called. The woman spins around him, and then flees; he pursues, until finally she is won over, and allows him to take her in his arms. The dance ends with the man on his knees before his partner, in token of a lover's submission.

The traditional accompaniment for the *cueca* comes from the guitar, the tambourine, and the harp, played softly at first, then with fire. As the spectators clap their hands in time to the music, the dance be-

gins. The strains echo the prevailing mood of the dance, now grave, now gay, serious or passionate, despairing or arrogant.

The Peruvian *marinera* is closely allied to the *cueca*; in fact, it is a direct derivative of the Chilean dance, which for a long time was known in Peru as the *chilena*, although there are those who maintain that the *cueca* itself was originally of Peruvian origin. The cheerful Peruvians welcomed the gay dance from the south, which was in pleasant contrast to the Inca *cashua*, a monotonously regular dance with recitations, or the somberly reckless *huayño*, traditionally danced by couples, the man and the woman each holding one end of a kerchief. After the War of the Pacific, in which Peru was defeated, native patriotism could not bring itself to outlaw the *chilena*, by that time entirely nationalized, so the name was changed, and the *marinera*, so-called in honor of the heroic Peruvian navy, came into being.

In the *marinera* the man advances with a gliding step towards his partner, his kerchief held high; she also advances, erect at first, then with drooping head in a sudden access of calculated modesty. The



From "El Pericón" by Ricardo Escuder

THE PERICÓN

The opening bars of the national dance of Uruguay show its character.



THE CHILEAN CUECA

A print, thus depicts the cueca of nearly a hundred years ago.

kerchief is lowered; it is no longer a proud banner waving from the mast, as in the *cueca*, but the fluttering sign of a romantic Indian lover. The man tries to stay erect and scornful, but his Indian blood whispers melancholy songs and breaks his pride, so he begins his wooing with a mournful tenderness. Meanwhile she, sure of triumph, advances with swaying hips and gliding feet. They seem to quarrel; heels tap, they come close, withdraw, turn abruptly, then approach again as the kerchief is once more raised boastfully.

Similar in style to the *marinera*, but with a greater proportion of Indian elements, is the *sanjuanito* of Ecuador. Those who have seen the *sanjuanito* danced at night say that the dancers have a plaintive quality, and that forever after they think of it as a nocturnal dance, even though the next time they witness it the hot sun may be shining high in the heavens over Quito, over the valley, on the gleaming snows of Pichincha and Chimborazo. When the dancer lowers his kerchief, he can barely lift it, because of the burden of great sadness weighing upon him. The *sanjuanito* depicts no great warrior triumphs, but it does reflect a certain measure of depression

and of hope. It expresses the sadness that sometimes appears in the *marinera*, a sadness with which the Inca *cashua* is wholly imbued. Life was less easy in Ecuador than in Peru and Chile, but it kept the family resemblance, and Ecuadorean music shows profound similarities to that of its southern neighbors.

The whole tone of the Colombian *bambuco* is different. The *bambuco* might be called a dance in which the folk elements have graduated from primary school and show social pretensions. It is an academic dance, with dialogue. Had the Colombians been a prairie people, they might have developed the *pericón*; but the *pericón* is purely rural, while the *bambuco* is on its way to the ball room. It is like a music hall artiste who also attends society functions and does not feel out of place at them. The *bambuco* is an unrestrained dance, still showing its unmistakable folk origin, but as it proceeds it becomes more elaborate, interpolating waltz steps in extra fast time. Although it is somewhat academic, it is still of a popular nature, and has a romantic strain like that found in nineteenth century literature.

In spite of the fact that Panama adjoins

Con expresión lenta y muy íntima ($\text{♩} = 66$)

PIANO

tenuto un poco

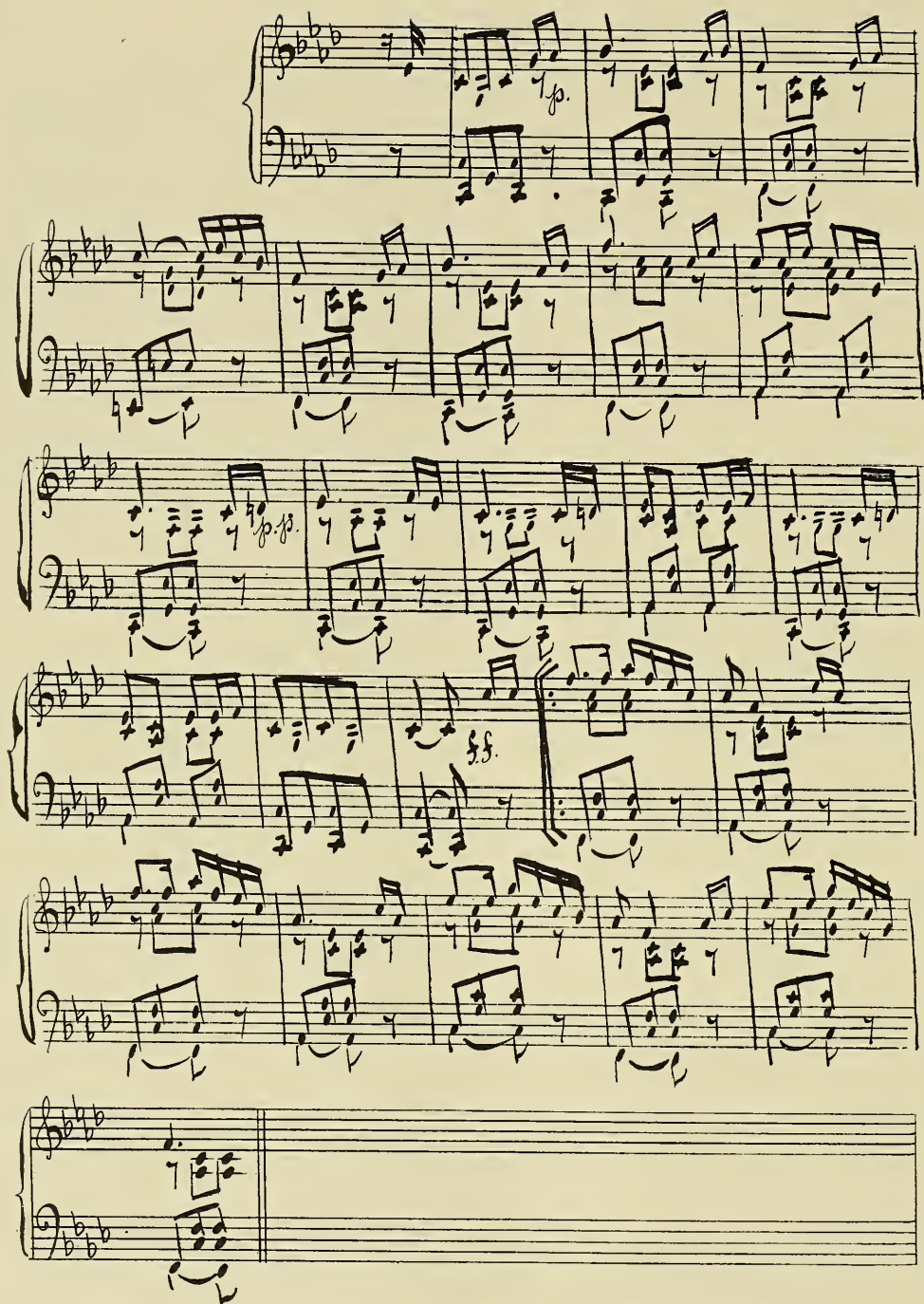
p *f* *p* *rit* *f* *a tempo* *pp* *Fin*

18

From "El Canto Popular," Buenos Aires

HUAYÑU

A pre-Colombian Incan dance, collected in Bolivia by Manuel Benavente and harmonized by him.



"THE BLIND MAN'S HARP," BY FATHER AGUSTÍN DE ARKÚNAGA
Part of an Ecuadorean San Juanito.



From *Caras y Caretas*

THE GATO, AN OLD ARGENTINE REGIONAL DANCE

The man is dressed in gaucho costume, while his partner wears the old-fashioned full-skirted dress. Her hair hangs in two long braids over her shoulders.

Colombia, its *tamborito* is entirely different in origin and style. Something of the jungle has insinuated itself in the *tamborito*, which has a feline rather than a sensual grace. Although the dance begins with a circle, the dancers do not hold hands, but seem to be fastened each to the next by the elbows and to struggle to free themselves from their bonds. The man bends, breaks away, as though on a spring, or shocked by an electric current, and then dances about his partner. For her part, she sways to and fro, moving her hips with great pertness, marking time and alluring him, without a trace of the native sadness evident in dances of other countries.

In the Cuban *son*, all bashfulness has dis-

appeared; the woman clings closely to her partner, unconcernedly. "We're out for a good time, we're out for a good time," says a *Poema de Son*, by Nicolás Guillén, in his *Sóngoro Cosongo*.

Perhaps the Latin American folk dance best known in the United States is the Mexican *jarabe tapatío*. Its colorfulness and grace have led to its adoption by professional dancers, who can always be sure of appreciative and enthusiastic applause for its execution.

It is a very charming costume dance. The man is in *charro* (Mexican cowboy) costume, tight black trousers and short jacket bright with silver buttons and heavy silver embroidery, a huge felt sombrero elabo-



Courtesy of National Railways of Mexico

A MEXICAN CHARRO AND HIS CHINA

Their costumes and the trappings of the horse are heavily ornamented with silver.

rately adorned in the same manner and a gay sarape over one shoulder. The girl dresses like a *china poblana*, or girl from Puebla, in a simple white blouse and scarf crossed in front, a bespangled red skirt, high-heeled colored slippers, ribbons in her hair, and beads, bracelets, and earrings to complete her costume.

The couple face each other, hands behind their backs, and dance around each other in a series of complicated steps. Then the man throws his hat on the ground, and his partner dances daintily on its broad brim. The whole effect is colorful, gay, and roguish, but also tender. The *charro* woos the *china* energetically, sometimes letting her think that she has won, only to make her yield later. The dance ends with the *charro* kneeling before the *china*, who coquettishly holds the sombrero behind her head as a background for her pretty face.

For further information on dances and music of Spanish America, the reader may wish to consult the following publications:

Regional Dances of Mexico, by Edith Johnston, Banks, Upshaw and Company, Dallas, Texas. \$1.28. Music and directions for Mexican dances, with suggestions for club programs.

Legends and Dances of Old Mexico, by Norma Schwendener and Averil Tibbels. A. S. Barnes and Company. \$2.00. Detailed directions for 12 Mexican dances, with some music.

Latin American Music (Past and Present), by Eleanor Hague. The Fine Arts Press, Santa Ana, California. \$3.50. A stimulating study of the background and development of Latin American music and customs, including some discussion of folk dances.

The Other Americas, an album of song and dance music, edited and illustrated by Xavier Cugat, music mostly by Ricardo Romero. Edward B. Marks Music Corporation, R C A Building, Radio City, New York. \$1.00. Modern music in traditional dance rhythms.

Treaty and Convention between Panama and the United States

THE RELATIONS between the United States and Panama have been placed on a firmer and friendlier basis through the ratification by the United States Senate on July 25, 1939, of the General Treaty signed at Washington on March 2, 1936. The treaty had been ratified by Panama within a fortnight after it was signed and the news of the ratification by the United States was greeted with the pealing of churchbells, screeching of fire sirens and other outbursts of public rejoicing. What is perhaps the greatest public demonstration ever held in Panama City took place on July 27 when citizens from all walks of life and from all parts of the country organized a huge parade to express to President Arosemena and ex-President Harmodio Arias their satisfaction and rejoicing. President Arosemena was the Minister for Foreign Affairs in the cabinet of Dr. Harmodio Arias, during whose administration the treaty was negotiated and signed. Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, former President of Panama, was at the time Minister to the United States and negotiated the treaty with the assistance of Señor Narciso Garay, the present Minister for Foreign Affairs. On the part of the United States the treaty was signed by the Secretary of State, the Hon. Cordell Hull, and the Undersecretary, the Hon. Sumner Welles.

The new treaty revises the Convention for the Construction of the Panama Canal, concluded at Washington on November 18, 1903, which for the past 35 years has been the basis of the relations between the two Governments. For many years Pana-

ma contended that certain provisions of this convention were derogatory to its sovereignty. It was claimed that as a sovereign, independent nation the territorial integrity of Panama was not assured, since Article II empowered the United States to acquire in the Republic of Panama additional lands and waters beyond those specifically mentioned as comprising the Canal Zone.

It was also claimed that Panama could not exercise exclusive and unrestricted authority over its territory since Article VII gave the United States the right to intervene in the cities of Panama and Colon to maintain public order "in case the Republic of Panama should not be, in the judgment of the United States, able to maintain such order."

The fact that Article I provided that "the United States guarantees and will maintain the independence of Panama" was also regarded as a limitation upon its sovereignty.

With regard to the first contention, Article II of the General Treaty of 1936 declares that Panama has loyally and satisfactorily complied with the provisions of Article II of the convention of 1903 and that the United States renounces the right to acquire additional lands and waters. While both Governments agree that the requirement of further lands and waters appears to be improbable, "if, in the event of some now unforeseen contingency, the utilization of lands or waters additional to those already employed should be in fact necessary for the maintenance, sanitation, or efficient operation of the Canal, or for its

effective protection, the Governments of the United States of America and the Republic of Panama will agree upon such measures as it may be necessary to take in order to insure the maintenance, sanitation, efficient operation and effective protection of the Canal, in which the two countries are jointly and vitally interested."

As to the second contention, Article VI of the General Treaty abrogates the provisions of the convention of 1903 which granted the United States the right to intervene in the cities of Panama and Colón and the territory adjacent thereto for the purpose of maintaining order. A subcommittee of the U. S. Senate Committee on Foreign Relations reported: "The Government of Panama has demonstrated that it is entirely competent to maintain public order throughout the Republic."

Instead of guaranteeing the independence of Panama, Article I of the General Treaty provides that "there shall be a perfect, firm, and inviolable peace and sincere friendship between the United States of America and the Republic of Panama" . . . and that "the United States of America will continue the maintenance of the Panama Canal for the encouragement and use of interoceanic commerce, and the two Governments declare their willingness to cooperate, as far as it is feasible for them to do so, for the purpose of insuring the full and perpetual enjoyment of the benefits of all kinds which the Canal should afford the two nations that made possible its construction as well as all nations interested in world trade." In accordance with an exchange of notes between the two Governments the word "maintenance" as applied to the Canal "shall be construed as permitting expansion and new construction when these are undertaken by the Government of the United States of America in accordance with the said treaty."

The commercial activities of the United

States within the Canal Zone had for many years been the object of discussion by the two Governments. The new treaty clarifies the situation by restricting these activities, establishing the classes of persons that are entitled to reside within the Zone and those that are entitled to make purchases in the Canal Zone commissaries. It is expected that these provisions will give Panama the opportunity to take advantage of its geographical situation to expand its commerce.

The convention of 1903 provided that the United States would make an annual payment to Panama of \$250,000 "in gold coin of the United States." When in 1934 the United States reduced the gold content of the dollar Panama refused to accept payment of the annuity in devalued dollars, contending that the convention called for payment in gold. The General Treaty settles the controversy by providing that beginning with 1934 the payments shall be at the rate of 430,000 balboas, the balboa being defined in a supplementary exchange of notes as having a gold content equal to that of the present United States dollar.

While satisfying the legitimate aspirations of Panama by abrogating all restrictions which could be interpreted as limitations upon its sovereignty or independence, the General Treaty at the same time continues the existing safeguards necessary for the efficient operation, maintenance, sanitation, and protection of the Panama Canal from the point of view of the United States, and moreover, as the Secretary of State said, "by associating the Republic of Panama in this work, accords even greater security and efficiency to the Canal, either in its present form or, should it become necessary, in an expanded form."

Article X, one of the most important in the treaty, provides that:

In case of an international conflagration or the existence of any threat of aggression which would

endanger the security of the Republic of Panama or the neutrality or security of the Panama Canal, the Government of the United States of America and the Republic of Panama will take such measures of prevention and defense as they may consider necessary for the protection of their common interests. Any measures, in safeguarding such interests, which it shall appear essential to one Government to take, and which may affect the territory under the jurisdiction of the other Government, will be the subject of consultation between the two Governments.

The phrase providing for consultation between the two Governments was clarified through an exchange of notes on February 1, 1939, which gives the following interpretation to Article X:

. . . in the event of an emergency so sudden as to make action of a preventive character imperative to safeguard the neutrality or security of the Panama Canal, and if by reason of such emergency it would be impossible to consult with the Government of Panama as provided in article X of said treaty, the Government of the United States of America need not delay action to meet this emergency pending consultation, although it will make every effort in the event that such consultation has not been effected prior to taking action to consult as soon as it may be possible with the Panamanian Government.

It should be noted that Article XXIII of the convention of 1903 has in nowise been altered. This article reads as follows:

If it should become necessary at any time to employ armed forces for the safety or protection of the Canal, or of the ships that make use of the same, or the railways and auxiliary works, the United States shall have the right, at all times and in its discretion, to use its police and its land and naval forces or to establish fortifications for these purposes.

The following summary of the essential features of the General Treaty with Panama was prepared by the Department of State:

Article I establishes a basis of friendship and co-operation between Panama and the United States.

In Article II the compliance of Panama with the provisions of Article II of the convention of November 18, 1903, in turning over to the United

States additional lands and waters beyond those specifically mentioned therein, is recognized. The requirement of further lands and waters is considered improbable by both Governments, but they nevertheless recognize their joint obligation to insure the continuous operation of the Canal and undertake to reach an agreement should additional lands and waters be in fact necessary for this purpose.

Article III contains various provisions restricting the commercial activities of the United States in the Canal Zone in order that Panama may take advantage of the commercial opportunities inherent in its geographical situation. In this article are listed the classes of persons who may reside in the Canal Zone and the persons who are entitled to make purchases in the Canal Zone commissaries.

Article IV provides for the free entry of merchandise entering Panama destined for agencies of the United States Government, and provides that no taxes shall be imposed upon persons in the service of the United States entering Panama or upon residents of Panama entering the Canal Zone.

Article V provides that port facilities other than those owned by the Panama Railroad Co. in the ports of Panama and Colón may be operated only by Panama; exempts from Panamanian taxation vessels using the Canal which do not touch at ports under Panamanian jurisdiction; and provides for the establishment of Panamanian customhouses within the Canal Zone. The United States undertakes to adopt such administrative regulations as may be necessary to assist Panama in controlling immigration into that country.

Article VI revises Article VII of the convention of November 18, 1903, in that the United States renounces the right to acquire, by the exercise of the right of eminent domain, lands or properties in or near the cities of Panama and Colón, although retaining the right to purchase necessary lands or properties. The third paragraph of the said Article VII, granting the United States the right to intervene in the cities of Panama and Colón and the territory adjacent thereto for the purpose of maintaining order, is abrogated.

Article VII provides that beginning with the 1934 annuity payment the annual amounts of these payments shall be four hundred thirty thousand balboas or the equivalent thereof. In a supplementary exchange of notes the balboa is defined as having a gold content equal to that of the present United States dollar.

Article VIII provides for a corridor under

Panamámanian jurisdiction to connect the city of Colón with other territory of Panama.

Article IX establishes a similar corridor under American jurisdiction to connect the Madden Dam area with the Canal Zone proper.

Article X provides that in case of emergency both Governments will take such measures of prevention and defense as they may consider necessary for the protection of their common interests.

Article XI reserves to each country all rights enjoyed by virtue of treaties now in force between the two countries, and preserves all obligations therein established, with the exception of those rights and obligations specifically revised by the present treaty. The juridical status of the Canal Zone, as defined in article III of the 1903 convention, thereby remains unaltered.¹

Article XII provides that the treaty shall take effect immediately on the exchange of ratifications in Washington.

Trans-Isthmian Highway

Together with the General Treaty the United States Senate also ratified the

¹ Article III of the convention of 1903 reads as follows: "The Republic of Panama grants to the United States all the rights, power and authority within the zone mentioned and described in Article II of this agreement and within the limits of all auxiliary lands and waters mentioned and described in said Article II which the United States would possess and exercise if it were the sovereign of the territory within which said lands and waters are located to the entire exclusion of the exercise by the Republic of Panama of any such sovereign rights, power or authority."—EDITOR.

Trans-Isthmian Highway Convention signed by the United States and Panama on March 2, 1936, in order to provide for the completion of a highway between the cities of Panama and Colón through territory under their respective jurisdictions. The convention has been summarized by the Department of State as follows:

The United States undertakes to obtain from the Panama Railroad Co. a waiver of that company's exclusive right to establish roads across the Isthmus of Panama in order to permit the construction of a trans-Isthmian highway between the cities of Panama and Colón. The specifications of the proposed highway are set forth, provision is made for the establishment of a joint board to deal with questions of detail, the two Governments agree to coordinate the construction work to be performed by them respectively, and each Government shall enjoy equally the use of the highway when completed. As a contribution to the completion of the highway, the United States will construct, at an estimated expense of \$300,000, a stretch of about 3 miles within the Canal Zone on the Atlantic side near Colón, which portion shall thereafter be maintained by Panama at its expense. The balance of the uncompleted construction of the highway will be paid for by Panama, including a short section under American jurisdiction near Madden Dam. This latter section is to be constructed by the Canal Zone authorities at an estimated expense to Panama of about \$125,000.

PAN AMERICAN *Progress*

Message of the President of Argentina

The message delivered to Congress by Dr. Roberto M. Ortiz, President of Argentina, on May 11, 1939, covers the first year of his Administration. His first words were of thanks to Congress, the public and the press for their cooperation in a period of economic difficulties, following upon three years of widespread prosperity. All the resources of the Government, the President said, had to be used to protect agricultural producers in the face of extraordinarily large crops and lack of demand for them in world markets. He warned producers that the establishment of minimum prices for wheat and linseed were strictly emergency measures and should not be considered permanent.

Referring to the political situation President Ortiz said that it was the firm determination of the Government to have political rights respected and expressed satisfaction at the orderly manner in which elections had been conducted in the Provinces of Tucumán, Entre Ríos, La Rioja and Mendoza. The political situation in the Province of San Juan, however, he found "truly disturbing" and declared that a thorough investigation had been ordered into the conduct of all those who had exercised authority in the name of the Federal Government.

"It will be difficult for us to become an organized democracy," the President said, "until our political parties try to fulfill their true mission. The great problems facing Argentina which still remain to be solved should be discussed by them continually and not in a sporadic manner

during pre-election agitation." Deploring the displacement of the traditional political parties by groups formed on the basis of "a false international conception" and "exotic symbolism" the President condemned the new political groupings for their adherence to principles of Left or Right with no specific reference to Argentine ideals. "In the measure that political parties lose their national character, they gradually become aggressive, irreconcilable groups, which stir up rancor and breed fratricidal struggles. . . . In this dangerous moment in world affairs our most urgent political problem is again to "Argentinize" national politics, ridding it of international ideologies, of the fetish worship of foreign political heads and régimes which are repugnant to our civic tradition and psychology."

Alluding to trade restrictions, the President stated that adverse trade returns, especially the unfavorable balance of payments, had necessitated the "energetic defence of our reserves and our economy." The uncertain prospects for wheat and the adverse balance of payments prompted the Executive to extend exchange control to the "free" exchange market. "Thus the plan for the gradual abolishment of exchange control machinery will have to be postponed. It would be foolish to take such action under present circumstances. In case of a European conflict, this machinery and the experience acquired in its management will be of the utmost importance. It has been and continues to be a condition imposed by circumstances and the country must endure it as the lesser evil until the moment arrives for its elimination. It has been and continues to be indispensable to de-

fend our balance of payments and our currency and to protect our foreign trade. Argentina should not buy more than it can pay for in merchandise. The object of the monetary reserves is to meet a temporary lack of equilibrium and not a chronic deficit in our international accounts. . . .

“If the great nations, whose economic policies have a decisive influence on world trade, would reduce their tariffs and lessen their restrictions it would be possible for us to choose a system and it is evident that Argentina would choose that of free trade. We can produce increasing quantities of foodstuffs and raw materials and compete successfully in world markets both as to quality and low cost. The multi-lateral system of trade is best adapted to our interests. It makes it possible to buy where things are cheapest, and it is easy to imagine the increase in our exports, especially meats, if a beginning were made in the application of this sound economic principle through moderate reductions in the custom duties imposed upon agricultural products.

“The exchange control policy, by limiting imports in accordance with the country's ability to pay, has allowed national industries to benefit by the demand thus created for their products. In this manner we have succeeded in maintaining a satisfactory level of employment which otherwise would have been considerably lowered.”

Reviewing the field of foreign affairs, the President drew the attention of Congress to the part played by Argentina in the settlement of the Chaco dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay and its contribution to the Eighth International Conference of American States which met at Lima last year.

The problem of providing education for all future citizens continued to be pressing,

the President stated, for nearly 1,000,000 children of school age are without educational facilities, and the task of providing these will engage the attention of the Federal Government and the Provinces for some time. During the past year, school lunches were provided in 600 schools, and thanks to recent legislation, further action in this field will be taken. The President called for a revaluation of the curriculum in primary, secondary, and and special schools because, he said, “It is absurd that all instruction in grade and high schools should be based on the supposition that all the pupils are to continue to the university.” The new high school courses will raise the general cultural level of Argentine youth, and by requiring an additional two-year college preparatory course, it will be possible to limit university studies to students genuinely interested in them. The western Provinces have been urging the establishment of centers of higher learning, and a beginning was made during the period under discussion by the establishment of the National University of Cuyo.¹

The President expressed concern at the falling birth rate, which he considered unjustified in a country where parents could be sure that the future would be even more promising for their children than for them.

The public works program for the previous year was in accordance with national expansion and progress. While an effort was made not to undertake projects that might lead to unemployment in some industries, the most urgently needed works and those that could be most quickly finished were chosen.

The effects of the recent economic difficulties were reflected in lower revenues collected by the Treasury, and in a smaller amount of capital available for

¹ See BULLETIN for September 1939, p. 541.

public bond issues. The Government made a great effort to reduce the deficit, but revenues were 15,000,000 pesos less than the 995,700,000 pesos called for in the budget. Drastic economy was practiced in disbursements, therefore, with the result that expenditures amounted to only 947,600,000 pesos, a saving of 48,100,000 pesos.

The appropriation of 171,500,000 pesos for public works was met by special bonds. Other expenditures not met by general revenues were: Armaments, 65,000,000 pesos; Federal contributions to various special funds, 14,900,000 pesos; highways, 10,000,000 pesos; and disbursements, authorized by special legislation, 9,000,000 pesos.

The total public debt increased 126,500,000 pesos, as may be seen from the following table:

	December 31, 1937	December 31, 1938
	In millions of paper pesos	
Foreign debt.....	932.5	993.7
Internal debt.....	2,816.7	2,990.2
	3,749.2	3,983.9
LESS		
Bonds held by the Treasury.	6.2	132.9
Total.....	3,743.0	3,851.0
Provincial debt assumed by the Federal Government..	27.1	45.6
General total.....	3,770.1	3,896.6

The Central State Railways Administration operated a total of 7,732 miles of track, or 27 percent of the railway mileage of the country; this included 6,462 miles of nationally owned railways and 1,270 miles of the leased Central Córdoba Railway. The gross revenues of the State-owned system amounted to 64,004,232 pesos, an increase of 1,262,853 pesos over those of 1937. The net returns for the year were

11,643,973 pesos, only 120,290 pesos less than the net profit for 1937.

Work on irrigation projects has been intensified. This includes the construction of irrigation ditches, dams, and drainage systems, the provision of drinking water, and the building of power plants. Some 272,000 acres have been benefited by these projects, for which the total expenditures, including the cost of upkeep, were 1,033,227 pesos.

The message also referred to the manufacturing industry, which has been developed most satisfactorily; to resettlement projects; to immigration; to the wool trade; to port works; and to health measures.

The President stated that, in accordance with authorization granted the Executive branch of the Government by Congress, a study was being made of the measures necessary for the development and progress of the merchant marine, for both maritime and river service.

Message of the President of Colombia

On July 20, 1939, President Eduardo Santos reported to the Congress of Colombia on the first year of his administration.

In discussing international affairs, President Santos spoke especially of the ever increasing solidarity of the American nations and said, "The fact now dominant in continental politics, in one of its basic aspects, is that of the excellent relations existing between the Government of the United States and the Ibero-American Republics." Colombia has requested the technical cooperation of the United States in naval and aviation matters as well as in other scientific fields, especially agriculture. Colombian relations with its neighbors continued excellent. The boundary with Venezuela has been almost entirely marked, and the two governments expect

soon to agree on the brief stretch still to be done.

For 30 years Colombia has maintained completely normal constitutional order. The period has been one of great political activity, and the President stated, "As a matter of fact, order has been kept not in calm and silence, but rather in the midst of an almost continuous democratic ferment." More than 50 elections have been held during that time, all characterized by freedom of speech and great excitement, without disturbing national peace.

From 1912 to 1938 municipal revenues rose from 3,700,000 pesos to 32,250,000; departmental revenues, from 5,800,000 to 48,750,000; and national revenues, from 13,900,000 to 97,400,000.

A general survey of all phases of national economy and finances leads to a justifiable optimism in which the whole nation can share. The policy of maintaining a stable exchange rate was given support by the passage of a stabilization law by the last Congress. The administration has been able to follow this policy, thanks to a clarification of the legal status of the Bank of the Republic, the amortization of a good part of the Government debt to that institution, the establishment of a stabilization fund, and the setting of a fixed basis for computing reserves, without any serious change in the gold reserves or the need for any radical readjustment.

Upon advice of the Exchange and Imports Control Commission, the Government has been modifying restrictions and establishing a more liberal regime as fast as circumstances permit. The President believed that further steps in that direction could be taken, and requested that the Congress authorize him to take them.

The most important problems relating to public finances are those connected with the national debt. The service on the various bond issues has been partly or

wholly suspended, and the Government is eager to resume service on its foreign obligations on the basis of its real capacity to pay. After expressing the hope that the foreign creditors would be willing to meet the Government in the same spirit, President Santos said that he would soon submit to Congress for study the conditions for a readjustment of foreign bonds now being discussed by national agents and the Foreign Bondholders' Protective Council of the United States.

The President took pleasure in stating that the financial situation continued to be sound. The real estate tax system has been modified by changes in direct taxes, and now reflects the increase in economic well-being. During the past year the Treasury had a surplus of more than 4,500,000 pesos. The situation has been helped by a greater civic consciousness among tax-paying citizens, who have demonstrated a commendable willingness to shoulder their share of the burden of public expenses.

Banking activities have shown a healthy development, especially as regards agrarian credit institutions. The Government would like to avail itself of the capital now being invested in mortgage bonds, to benefit rural regions; this could be done through the territorial credit banks, whose establishment has been authorized in nearly all Departments, in accordance with decrees of February 25 and August 5, 1938. In this way farmers with limited means could obtain long-term loans under the control and supervision of local institutions, which are best fitted to exercise such authority.

The Government recently created the National Cattle Fund, which has already commenced operations, as a branch of the Agrarian Credit Bank.

The desire to improve living conditions in isolated rural districts led to the creation of the Territorial Credit Institute in 1939.

The new organization will coordinate the work of the above-mentioned territorial credit banks, which will carry on a campaign of social education. Work has already begun in the Department of Nariño, where a recent epidemic showed that there was great need for such an institution.

The present national prosperity is based on an increase in real wealth, on productive capital, and on a knowledge of economics. Statistics dealing with the principal industries during the last year show that the installation of new machinery and equipment has brought about a proportionate increase in sales. The textile industry, for example, produced 27,000,000 pesos' worth of goods in 1938, a 15 percent increase over figures for 1937, and 45,000 spindles and 1,500 looms were added to the factories.

The increase in gold production has been an important factor in the stability of the Colombian balance of trade. New oil deposits are being exploited, and the production of petroleum should be greatly increased. These are the two industries that have attracted most foreign capital.

The improved price of coffee, after the depression of November 1937, demonstrates that Colombian coffee enjoys a high regard in world markets and should remove any fears as to the future of the principal source of national wealth.

The President spoke at length about education, for he said that it was one of the most revealing indications of national development. In 1835 Colombia had three universities, small and ill-equipped, and 20 secondary schools with 2,307 students in the 23 institutions; and 690 primary schools, with 20,125 pupils. Now there is a large National University, three regional universities, and six additional institutes offering courses of university grade, and 376 secondary schools, besides 25 vocational schools and 11 commercial

schools, with a total of 73,000 students in these two classifications; and nearly 9,200 primary schools, with more than 600,000 pupils.

Gratifying as these figures are, there are still insufficient educational facilities to meet immediate needs. It is estimated that only a little more than a third of the population of school age can obtain a primary education. To care properly for these children, about 20,000 new schools would be needed.

The problem is one of buildings and teachers. As regards the former, it is still a question as to the amount and kind of national aid to be given to municipalities to improve existing facilities or provide new schools. Appropriations have been made in the last three years, but the results have not been immediate. The President suggested that perhaps the best solution would be for the Government to reimburse local authorities after work had been done, rather than to let them wait to improve conditions until the Government acted.

The teacher problem is complex. Many primary school teachers are imperfectly trained, although the Government is taking steps to remedy this situation. One measure is the establishment of correspondence courses, which have 2,000 subscribers at the present time, and of supplementary courses in the Advanced Normal School, which are planned for group directors and have an enrolment of 80 students.

Rural education is deficient, partly because of geographical difficulties. The Government is considering the possibility of establishing coeducational boarding schools, with a capacity of 400 students each, to provide a two-year course for students living in isolated regions. Among the advantages of such institutions would be: better teaching staffs; uninterrupted attendance; adequate medical attention;

proper diet; and training that would be an incentive to improve living conditions at home.

The need for more and better trained teachers has led to increased emphasis on normal education. The Government is supporting 7 normal schools for men, 2 for women, and 4 for women who will teach in rural schools. The combined enrolment of these schools is 1,681 students, with 2,503 children in practice schools. The appropriation for this purpose has almost tripled in five years: in 1934 it was 316,000 pesos; in 1937, 848,000 pesos; and for the present year it is estimated at 935,000 pesos. The Government recognizes the degrees granted by 8 Departmental normal schools for women, enrolment 1,668; 1 normal school for men, enrolment 163; 3 regional rural normal schools, enrolment 134; and 8 private normal schools for women, enrolment 478. Last January the normal school curriculum was changed to give it a more general cultural character in addition to teacher training.

The Advanced Normal School, which trains secondary and normal school teachers, cannot fill, from among its graduates, the vacancies existing throughout the country. At present it has 169 students, with a practice secondary school of 135 students, in addition to the extension courses mentioned above.

Secondary education also presents many problems. The number of students has increased greatly in recent years, and neither the long-established schools nor those recently opened have been able to take care of those wishing to enter. Government aid has been given to many such schools, but national finances are such that it is impossible to increase such aid indefinitely. Moreover, nearly all secondary schools are college preparatory; it is most desirable to broaden secondary education to give technical and vocational diplomas

in addition to the traditional academic degree.

When the Ministry of National Education was reorganized at the end of 1938, a section was created to supervise and encourage industrial and supplementary training.

Although the National University was made an independent institution in 1935, it still depends entirely on a subsidy from the Government. For the present year the appropriation was 1,105,000 pesos. Construction on the "University City" is progressing; the Botanical Institute, Veterinary School, and Physical Education Institute are now functioning, and during the current year the buildings for the Schools of Law and Architecture and the first dormitory will be completed.

The President referred the members of Congress to the report of the Minister of the Treasury for details as to the financial situation of the country. The vexed question of centralization versus decentralization of government has its serious financial aspect; one point to be decided is whether, if increased decentralization of government is decided upon, the national government should aid in regional projects, or whether it should be financially responsible only for those affecting the community as a whole. The ultimate solution should include a permanent and constant cooperation between all regions and the National Government, for the prosperity of all sections is essential for the well-being of each.

After mentioning technical matters in connection with the Ministry of War, President Santos spoke of the great development of civil aviation in the country. In view of the growing importance of domestic air communication, he felt that it would be advisable to form a single company of the two existing services: Scadta, the oldest commercial company in continuous opera-

tion in the world, and the Saco, a later national organization.

The recently organized Ministry of National Economy includes the functions of the former Ministry of Agriculture. Colombia is largely self-supporting as far as foodstuffs are concerned, and could be entirely so, thanks to its diversity of climate. The annual corn crop has a value of more than 27,000,000 pesos, and that of potatoes more than 15,000,000 pesos, although little has been done in the way of providing a knowledge of modern scientific methods to the farmers. The Government is carrying on a campaign to improve the cultivation of many crops, especially sugarcane, wheat, potatoes, rice, corn, cocoa, cotton, and fruit. Coffee growers have long utilized the findings of science.

The Ministry is concerned over the effects of deforestation, and is planning reforestation in the regions where heavy rainfalls make erosion a serious problem.

A recent law concerning the cattle industry should do much to improve the quality and quantity of cattle bred in the country and to increase the number of horses and sheep. Sheep-breeding should be encouraged, both for meat and for wool; in 1937 wool imports were valued at more than 7,500,000 pesos.

The Ministry of Labor, Health, and Social Welfare, also established during the past year, deals with a variety of national problems, including the relations between labor and capital, labor union activities, the formation of cooperative societies, the Social Security Fund, child welfare, and campaigns against disease.

The National Labor Bureau has dealt with 10 strikes and by its influence prevented many others. Its relations with labor unions and their leaders have been most cordial. But the President said that there is need for a clarification of the proper field of action for the unions, which

should not include political activities. He summed up the labor policy of his administration in the following words:

"We want industrial and economic progress to develop harmoniously in the country in such a way as to intensify it, guarantee the interests of labor, and assure it a growing participation in national prosperity; we want to carry out social legislation; and we want to remove intolerance, injustice, or caprice in the relations between capital and labor. Therefore we have firmly continued to establish conciliation and arbitration commissions. . . . And that is why we want the collective contract established in Colombia. . . ."

The previous Congress created by law a Social Security Fund, which the President felt should be somewhat amended. The proposed amendments are practical in nature, and look to a speedy establishment of the new organization on a partial basis, followed by a gradual enlargement of its activities. He would have it begin with sickness benefits, including maternity protection, and death benefits, leaving until later those requiring greater financial support from the State, such as unemployment and old age insurance. He also expressed the hope that existing private or official entities, such as the Social Welfare Fund of Bogotá, might eventually be incorporated in the national Fund.

The cooperative movement has shown a gratifying development. The total value of operations carried on by the different cooperative societies in 1933 was 164,000 pesos, while in 1938 they were 5,962,000 pesos.

The President called special attention to the Agrarian Credit Bank, which in the seven years since its establishment has made its influence felt throughout the country. Its first branch office was founded six years ago; now there are about a hundred offices. Four years ago it had

dealt with 5,500 cases, involving something less than 5,000,000 pesos; the present figure is 50,000 cases, involving 20,000,000 pesos. The Agricultural Provision Office of the Bank is doing a great service by enabling farmers to purchase machinery and tools, fertilizer, and insecticides at cost and by providing free soil analysis. The Colombian Savings Bank, which has been merged with the Agrarian Credit Bank, has also shown a great development in recent years. On January 1, 1936, it had 22 offices, with deposits of 4,150,000 pesos; at the time of the message it had 71 offices, with 8,400,000 pesos on deposit.

In September 1938 Bogotá was host to the Tenth Pan American Sanitary Conference, which was attended by delegates from 19 American countries.

The Health Department has continued and improved the Health Units and Commissions and the Mixed Health Centers. This year there are 35 Health Units functioning throughout the country, and as soon as funds are available four more will be established.

Special attention has also been given to child welfare institutions. Of a total health appropriation of 5,400,000 pesos in the national budget, 700,000 pesos were for child welfare services. During the first quarter of 1938, 1,300,000 bottles of milk were supplied, medical treatment was given to 14,000 school children and dental examinations to 39,000; in the same period of 1939, the figures were 1,800,000 bottles of milk, 50,000 children treated and 50,000 dental examinations. A similar increase was noted in maternity services for the same quarterly period: in 1938, 2,896 women received prenatal care; in 1939, 5,000 women; births attended in 1938 were 2,000; in 1939, more than 3,000.

Public works activities have increased greatly in recent years, but the President pointed out that although the projects

were based on a laudable desire for progress, too many were authorized for the funds available, so that work on all of them was progressing very slowly. He therefore requested Congress to designate the order in which the various projects should be carried out, so that the most important might be completed promptly.

While praising the highway construction of recent years, the President mentioned specific stretches that are urgently needed. Among these were a highway connecting Santa Marta, on the Caribbean, with Barranquilla and Cartagena; a central highway for the Department of Bolívar, joining Cartagena with the Magdalena River; the completion of the Cali-Buenaventura road; and a highway between Pasto, capital of the southernmost Department, with Puerto Asís, on the Putumayo River, a tributary of the Amazon.

In his concluding paragraphs, President Santos said, "Progress in Colombia, in comparison with that in other countries, may seem slow. But this deliberate slowness, I believe, not only is in accord with our national character, but is to our best advantage. . . . It is a thousand times more preferable to go slowly under our own power and with our own efforts, than to proceed headlong in the train of foreign interests, and at their service. . . .

"The activities of the Ministries of Economy, Education, and Labor and Hygiene may be considered to express the standards of this administration. Although funds are still inadequate, we try to encourage the most diverse national activities and to defend the rights, the education, and the health of the people. . . .

"Colombia has every reason to trust in its future. Though the present may be relatively poor and undeniably lacking in some respects, the outlook for the future is so promising that it should stimulate every one's energies. . . ."

Program for the Fifth Pan American Congress of Architects

The Executive Committee of the Fifth Pan American Congress of Architects has announced that the Congress will meet in Montevideo, Uruguay, in March 1940, and has issued the following program for its sessions:

- I. Contemporary problems related to municipal expansion in the Americas:
 - a. Ground covered in relation to height
 - b. How and by whom decisions should be made and planning measures adopted
 - c. Advantages of legislation on the use of land on the outskirts of the city
- II. Middle-class housing:
 - a. Apartment houses
 - b. One-family houses
 - c. Economic and financial measures for promoting middle-class housing
- III. Public competitions:
 - a. Standards for their regulation, in accordance with the experience of American nations
 - b. Remuneration of contestants and juries
- IV. Auxiliary specialists in architecture:
 - a. Their technical function and the scope of their service
 - b. Evaluation of their services and who should pay for them
- V. Supplementary specialization courses in architectural schools:
 - a. Advantages of introducing courses emphasizing the different vocational phases of the profession of architects and surveying related matters (city planning, embellishment, legal matters, special financing, building techniques, estimates, etc.)
- VI. Standardization of courses in the history of American architecture:
 - a. Local study centers and their permanent interrelationship
 - b. Orientation and methods of study

American architects have held international gatherings since 1920, when the First Pan American Congress of Architects met at Montevideo. Subsequent congresses were held at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; Buenos Aires, in 1927; and Rio de Janeiro, in 1930.

The Executive committee in charge of arrangements for the Fifth Congress is as follows: Chairman, Daniel Rocco; 1st vice chairman, Raúl Lerena; 2d vice chairman, Julio C. Bauzá; General Secretary, Horacio Terra; secretaries, Julio Duhaldo, Miguel A. Bellini, and Héctor Barere; and treasurer, A. Chiriano Ravenna.

It may be added that in Uruguay the profession of architect is highly regarded, and architects often sign their buildings with lettering somewhere on the façade.

Intensification of education among the Indians of Peru

With the object of broadening the education of the Indian masses, the Government of Peru has issued a decree providing for the organization of cultural brigades which will operate in the northern, central, southern, and eastern sections of the country, under the supervision of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. The brigades will carry on their work independently of that done by the Ministry of Public Education for the instruction of Indian children.

The work entrusted to these cultural brigades has an economic-social objective: to bring about an improvement in the cultural and labor conditions that prevail among the natives. The plan, which is subject to a program fixed by the Technical Section of the Department of Indian Affairs, calls for use of the most modern educational equipment, such as trucks, motion picture projectors, radio receiving sets, sanitary units, traveling libraries, etc.

The lectures and explanatory talks given by the personnel of these educational missions will be made in the Indian languages. They are to be based on topics which are characteristic of each region, informing the inhabitants of each place of ways and means for improving their own

living conditions through the application of more advanced methods of work and social customs.

Bolivia establishes a committee for the prevention of tuberculosis

The Government of Bolivia has created a National Committee, the object of which is to coordinate and direct the campaign against tuberculosis. The members of the Committee will serve without remuneration.

The Ministers of Hygiene and Health and of Labor and Social Welfare, together with the Dean of the Faculty of Medical Sciences, and three officials to be named by the President of the Republic, form the Board of Directors of this important organization. The Director of the Anti-tuberculosis Association, an organization which has functioned for some time in combating the disease, has been named technical adviser to the Committee.

One of the principal undertakings recommended to the National Committee is a demographic study of tuberculosis in Bolivia. The funds to be provided for the campaign, the organization of publicity to make the necessary preventive and curative methods known among the people, and the fostering of the formation of private groups to work along the same lines, are also prescribed in the decree as activities of the Committee.

Decree concerning foreigners in Chile

The Government of Chile has put into effect a decree which regulates the admission of foreigners into the country. Under its provisions the Minister of the Interior classifies foreigners as tourists, commercial travelers, persons in transit, and immigrants. The decree specifies precisely the length of time foreigners are

allowed to remain in the country, the resources and means which they must possess, and the activities which they may pursue during their sojourn in the country.

The measure provides that foreigners who had entered the country prior to 1931, even though they do not possess passports, may obtain authorization to reside indefinitely in Chilean territory. The same authorization may be extended to those who entered the country between 1931 and February 1937 as tourists or with visas of persons in transit, and to those who have passports with an "ordinary visa" who have resided in the country for one year.

Conditional visas may be extended as follows: "Tourist", for a single period of three months, and "visit" or "commercial journey", for a period of six months. A "contract visa", if the person holding one has satisfactorily fulfilled the terms of the contract, may be replaced by an ordinary visa.

The opening of Chilean frontiers and ports to political exiles of other countries is to be carefully protected in order to avoid an influx of undesirable elements, but it is also hoped to take advantage of the arrival of those who, because of their racial characteristics and cultural level, may serve to increase the population and give greater impetus to the development of the natural resources of the country.

Chile will take care that no immigrants be admitted whose purpose is not to devote themselves to activities which will be of benefit to national interests. In this respect there have been taken into account the effects of immigration laws of other countries which rigidly limit the entrance of foreigners to their territory. In accordance with Chile's needs, methods will be adopted to obtain adequate protection against unbalanced economic and demographic conditions.

Constitutional amendments in Peru

Amendments to the constitution of Peru, in accordance with the reforms proposed by General Óscar R. Benavides and approved, according to an announcement of the Government, by an overwhelming majority at the plebiscite in June 1939, considerably increased the powers of the executive branch of the Government and decreased those of the legislative branch.

Among the principal amendments were: Extension of the presidential term from five to six years; postponement of the election of a "corporate senate" until 1945; extension of the terms of deputies from five to six years; election of one third of the deputies every two years; restoration of the right of executive veto; authorization to Congress to pass a law enabling the President to promulgate laws on certain subjects while Congress is in recess; provision for putting into effect the budget at the beginning of each year, even though it may not have been approved by Congress; and abolition of proportional representation of the minorities.

With the adoption of the amendments, Peru now returns to a constitutional régime, after an emergency period which began when President Benavides received special powers from the Constitutional Assembly which met on November 14, 1936.

The next presidential and legislative term in Peru will begin December 8, 1939, and will end July 28, 1945. President Benavides, under whose administration there have been accomplished the construction of important communication lines toward the interior of the country, including a highway to the Amazon River, and the promotion of various social projects such as the popular restaurants, announced that he would not continue in the Presidency at the expiration of his present term.

Aid to earthquake victims and industrial promotion in Chile

In compliance with the provisions of Law No. 6334 as passed by the National Congress of Chile, the President of the Republic, Pedro Aguirre Cerda, on June 30, 1939 approved the general regulations of the Corporation for the Promotion of Production.

According to the law which was passed on April 28, 1939, two public agencies are created to carry out the work of aiding the victims of the earthquake of January 24, 1939, and to formulate and put into practice a plan for promotion of production which will encourage industry and facilitate national reconstruction on a permanent basis. The two agencies are to be known as the Corporation for Reconstruction and Assistance, and the Corporation for Promotion of Production.

The Reconstruction and Assistance Corporation will last for six years; it will have charge of everything pertaining to loans, expropriations, reconstruction, and aid to those who suffered damages in the provinces affected by the earthquake of January 24, 1939. It will be administered and directed by a council of twenty-four members, among whom will be the Ministers of the Treasury, Promotion, and Agriculture; the Director of Public Works; representatives of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, of the Board of Directors of the Central Bank of the Republic, of the Advisory Boards of the Mortgage Credit Bank, National Savings Bank, Low-Cost Housing Fund, Autonomous Fund for Amortization of the Public Debt, Bank of Agricultural Credit, and Institute of Industrial Credit; and delegates of the national agricultural, engineering, and architectural organizations and of the Institute of Engineers and Architects of Concepción.

This corporation is also empowered to

"extend the benefits of the law to new construction or to repair of buildings in the areas devastated by the earthquake of December 1, 1928."

Loan operations authorized by the statute will be considered as extraordinary. The special regulations of the organic laws of the respective institutions will be inapplicable to them, as they will be governed only by the provisions of the emergency law as approved and by conditions determined by the Corporation Council.

When the Corporation's life has ended, the funds or property under its control are to pass to the Autonomous Amortization Fund, which will continue, either directly or through the organization which has handled the operations, to receive payments on the debt until it has been completely liquidated.

Among other duties the Council will: (1) formulate a general plan of reconstruction for the devastated area which is to receive the benefits of the law; (2) determine which cities or towns in the affected zone are to be constructed or reconstructed with the resources provided by the statute, and which public works should be provided in the same zone; (3) work out a plan for the cities where total or partial construction or reconstruction is considered necessary, this plan to specify the location and extent of all private property which ought to be expropriated; (4) make loans to the victims and grant direct assistance to municipalities in the devastated area, approve the repair and construction of necessary public works and services in the affected zone, and invest the sum necessary for the removal of debris in those sections of the cities which are to be rebuilt in accordance with the respective plans.

The Corporation for the Promotion of Production will be of permanent character. Its administration and direction are placed

by the law in the hands of a board composed, among other persons, of representatives of all the governmental and private agencies named in connection with the council of the Reconstruction and Assistance Corporation, plus the Presidents of the Commission of International Exchange, Commission of Import Licenses, Mining Credit Bank, Agricultural Colonization Fund, Chamber of Commerce of Chile, and the secretary general of the General Confederation of Labor of Chile.

Among the duties assigned to the Corporation's board are to: (a) formulate a general plan of promotion of national production with a view to raising the standard of living; (b) conduct studies aimed at finding more adequate means to develop new products or increase the production of present ones, to improve quality and output, lower cost of production, and facilitate the transportation, warehousing, and sale of the products; (c) apply the results of these studies in making trials of production or commerce on whatever scale and with whatever assistance may be considered advisable; (d) aid manufacturing in the country or facilitate the importation of machinery and other materials for production; and (e) propose and aid in the adoption of means to increase the consumption of national products or obtain a greater participation by Chilean interests in industrial and commercial activities.

In order to put into effect the plan for assistance to the victims of the earthquake of January 24, 1939, a billion pesos are appropriated, to be expended, as directed by the law, "in accordance with needs and subject to executive decree." Furthermore, it is provided that the Corporation shall have at its disposition the moneys provided from donations and voluntary contributions to help the victims.

The plan for the promotion of production

is much broader and necessarily requires more funds to achieve its purpose. According to the law, there is allocated for this purpose fifty per cent of the loan of two billion pesos which the President of the Republic was authorized to make, for a term of five years, and all of a loan of 500,000,000 pesos destined for the construction of low-cost housing, preferably in the devastated area. The funds are to be made available in annual quotas of not exceeding twenty per cent of the total, "according to needs and subject to executive decree."

In order to take care of the necessary expenses entailed by the obligations and functioning of the Corporation, the law creates a Fund for the Promotion of Production, to which will be allocated: (a) Two per cent of the proceeds of the loans entered into by the Corporation for the Promotion of Production, to a maximum of 20,000,000 pesos; (b) the differences between service on loans made by the Corporation to native or legal Chileans and the service on loans entered into by the Government and placed at the disposition of the Corporation (legal Chileans are those established in the country in conformity with its laws; in the case of corporations, sixty per cent of the members must be Chileans and in the case of associations, sixty per cent of the stock must be owned by native or naturalized Chileans); (c) proceeds of the sale of a special loan; (d) funds from the treasury and contributions and donations which the Corporation may receive by general order or for a fixed purpose; and (e) principal and interest payments, service charges, and other income of the Corporation.

With the purpose of obtaining funds to help toward paying the cost of the work

planned, income taxes have been revised substantially upward, the increase being 10 per cent on incomes up to 200,000 pesos and 20 per cent on the excess above that limit; and a surtax of 50 percent of the tax already in effect has been imposed on inheritances and gifts. Furthermore, new license fees will be charged against concessionaires, manufacturers, and merchants who will benefit from these approved emergency measures.

These taxes are retroactive. Article 43 of the law, which was approved April 28, 1939, expressly stipulates that the taxes shall be effective as of the first day of January of this year; in other words, they will be calculated on the basis of income received in 1938.

These special income taxes will apply for five years from the date on which they became effective. The law makes the assumption that, once the plan for the promotion of production gets under way, national industries will be so stimulated that the greater expenditures which are contemplated and the loans which will be negotiated to accomplish the purposes of the law can be met without hardship for the taxpayers. The only increases to remain in effect for a longer period are those applying to special benefits.

The administration of the law has been placed under the Treasury Department and the supervision of receipts and investments will be handled by the Comptroller General of the Republic.

The General Regulations recently approved by the President set forth the provisions which, in accordance with the law, will govern the activities of the Corporation for the Promotion of Production and its subsidiaries. The life of the Corporation is unlimited by the regulations and its headquarters are fixed in the city of Santiago.

NECROLOGY

COLONEL GERMÁN BUSCH.—President of Bolivia. Graduated from Military College of La Paz, 1926; second lieutenant in the army, 1926–31; lieutenant, 1931–32; captain, 1932; principal aide to the Commander-in-chief of the Bolivian forces in the Chaco, 1933. Because of his brilliant sense of military strategy, was named Chief of Staff of the Bolivian Army in 1934. Proclaimed President of the Republic by a military coup on July 13, 1937, and elected constitutional president in May 1938. Died at the age of 35 at La Paz on August 23, 1939.

FEDERICO GAMBOA.—Mexican diplomat, writer, and professor. Entered the diplomatic service in 1888 and held posts in Central America, Brazil, Argentina, and the United States; Under-Secretary of Foreign Affairs, 1908–09; Ambassador to Spain, 1910; Special Envoy to Belgium and The Netherlands, 1910; Secretary of Foreign Affairs, 1910; delegate to many international peace, legal, and commercial conferences; member of College of Philosophy and Letters, University of Mexico; died at the age of 75, at Mexico City, on August 15, 1939.

JULIUS GARECHÉ LAY.—American diplomat. Entered the United States Consular Service in 1889; served as consul in Ottawa and Windsor, Canada, 1893–98; appointed consul general, Barcelona, 1899; Canton, 1904; Cape Town, 1906; Rio de Janeiro, 1910; Berlin, 1914; Acting Foreign Trade Adviser, State Department, 1918–20; consul at Calcutta, 1924; counselor of embassy, Santiago de Chile, 1927; Minister to Honduras, 1929–34; Minister to Uruguay, 1934–37; Delegate to Pan American Commercial Conference, Buenos Aires, 1935. Died at the age of 67, in Massachusetts, August 28, 1939.

FRANCISCO LEÓN DE LA BARRA.—Mexican statesman, writer, and authority on international law. Held diplomatic posts under President Díaz in eight countries, including the United States where he was Ambassador, 1908–11; provisional president of Mexico following overthrow of Díaz in 1911; began a new and eminently successful career as international jurist in Paris at the age of 50; professor of international law at the Sorbonne; lecturer at the University of Poland and the Royal Academy of Belgium; arbitral commissioner of The Hague Court of International Justice; died at the age of 76, at Biarritz, France, on September 23, 1939.

SAMUEL C. ROJAS.—Mexican soldier and aviator. Appointed first military air attaché of the Mexican Embassy in Washington in 1928; named Director of Military Education, 1936; Chief of the Department of Aviation, 1937. Died at the age of 45, at Mexico City, on August 9, 1939.

FRANCISCO SARABIA.—Mexican aviator. Graduated as pilot in 1926; served as United States air mail pilot in 1928; established school of aviation in Monterrey, Mexico, 1929; supervised construction and inauguration of 28 commercial landing fields in Mexico; established commercial air transport lines in Tabasco and Chiapas; assisted in the study and mapping of air routes in many other parts of Mexico. On May 24, 1939, made a record-breaking non-stop flight from Mexico City to Floyd Bennett Field, New York, in 10 hours 48 minutes. Died at the age of 38, on June 5, 1939, when his plane, *Conquistador del Cielo*, fell into the Potomac River, Washington, D. C., immediately after he took off on his return flight to Mexico.

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WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now almost 50 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima, Peru, in 1938. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, social, and cultural relations. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant

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The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, intellectual and agricultural cooperation, juridical matters, and travel, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 100,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution.

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The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: HALL OF THE AMERICAS, PAN AMERICAN UNION





THE UNIVERSITY OF VENEZUELA, CARACAS

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIII, No. 12



DECEMBER 1939

The Latin American Universities In Step with History

ERNESTO GALARZA

Assistant, Division of Intellectual Cooperation

"GREAT EPOCHS IN HISTORY have coincided with periods of greatness in the evolution of the university." This statement, in which Roberto Agramonte y Pichardo, the noted Cuban professor of philosophy, referred to the intellectual, social, and political progress of Western Europe, is especially true of Latin America. The conquest by Spain, the revolutions for independence, and the development of new economic and cultural ties with the modern world, left their mark on the university; and the university, in turn, deeply influenced these three great cycles of Latin American history.

The Spanish conquerors had hardly finished razing the citadels of Aztec and Inca power when they turned to the task of re-creating in the new world the medieval university. On May 12 and on September

21, 1551, royal edicts were issued authorizing the establishment of universities in Lima and Mexico, respectively. Lima lost its narrow advantage in historical precedence by opening its doors after the University of Mexico had organized its classes in 1553. There was some compensation in the fact that papal confirmation of the royal charters was extended in 1571 to that of Lima (renamed the University of San Marcos in 1574), but not until 1595 to that of Mexico. The University of Santo Domingo had existed on royal paper since 1538, but it had attained neither the approval of the Holy Father nor the marks of a going concern by the time its more fortunate contemporaries on the mainland were holding classes.

Throughout the colonial period, at varying intervals, other centers of higher

learning were established: Bogotá in 1571; Quito in 1596; Córdoba in 1613; Sucre in 1624. Others followed until the first great cycle was closed with the founding of the universities of Habana in 1728, San Felipe (Santiago, Chile) in 1738 and Guadalajara, Mexico, in 1792.

The University of Salamanca was taken as the model for the new institutions overseas. The charters for the universities of Lima and Mexico granted them "the same privileges, franchises and liberties" enjoyed by the famous Spanish center of learning. These included the use of a proper seal and such rights as the rebellious "republics of letters" had wrung from barons, dukes and kings during the Renaissance.

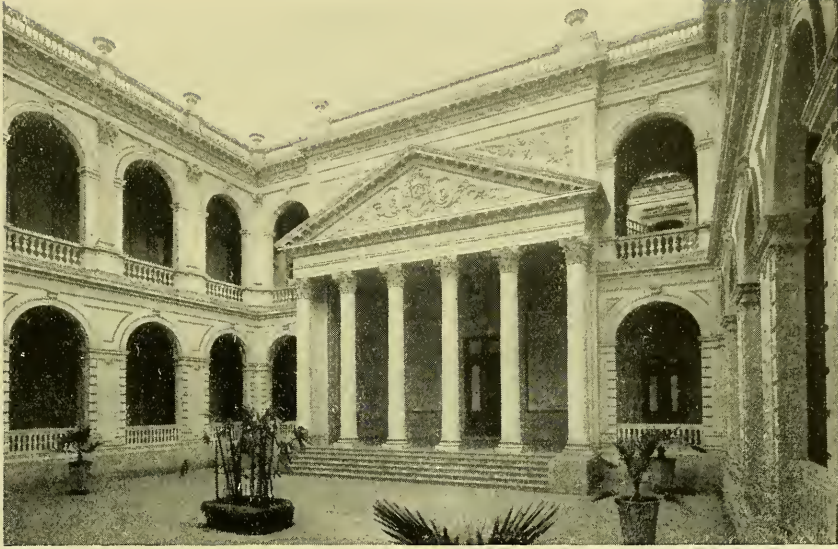
The ceremonies that accompanied the inauguration of a new university were in keeping with the importance of the event, which was sometimes delayed for decades by the complicated business of getting favorable action at the royal and papal courts. The petition for the establishment of the University of Guadalajara was first submitted in 1750. Final approval was not given by the Crown until 1792. When the royal charter arrived on a March day of that year, every church bell in the town was set flying. The city functionaries, assembled in solemn council, "one by one took the royal cedula, kissing it and placing it on their heads in token of obedience."

The colonial university both reflected and shaped the cultural pattern of colonial society. Its principal object was to promote and defend the established religion, to train clergy in sufficient numbers to attend to the spiritual welfare of the white settlers, and to carry on the work of evangelization among the Indian tribes. Its leaders were prominent clerics who in many instances not only were scholars but also had rendered valuable services as explorers, missionaries, or philanthropists.

It was natural, therefore, that the strongest, often the only, faculty in the first universities was that of theology, in which ethics, canon law, and similar subjects were taught. Sometimes there was a professorship of medicine, but it was the medicine of the medieval schoolmen, empirical and with an eye to sacred dogma. The faculty of theology trained not only the leaders of the church but state officials as well. The University of Mexico, in the first 225 years of its existence, graduated 25,802 bachelors and 1,162 doctors of divinity.

The establishment of a university brought cultural prestige to the colonial capitals and added a touch of color to provincial life. Academic events, such as the opening of the school year, the installation of a new rector or the granting of degrees, were events of pomp and circumstance. Glittering processions, in which the civil, military and ecclesiastical authorities marched in strict order of precedence, wound through the streets of the town, drums beating and banners flying. The age of "dignities, prebends and categories," in which the rule was censorship rather than science, was passing; but while it lasted its gilded trappings gave to university life at least the outward appearance of dutiful conformity to tradition.

As the XVIIIth century came to a close, deep changes began to take form. In the universities inquiring minds were reading forbidden books in the shadowed cloisters. Roistering students began to talk soberly of political events in the mother country. Daring theologians, born in the colonies and for that reason subject to many vexing disabilities, began to cite scripture and canon law against the prejudices from which they suffered. Gradually, academic and philosophic discontent merged with the two other great currents of the day—political and economic rebellion. Thus



IN THE UNIVERSITY OF SAN MARCOS, LIMA

Created by edict of the King of Spain on May 12, 1551, the University of San Marcos holds classes in the building it has occupied since 1822.

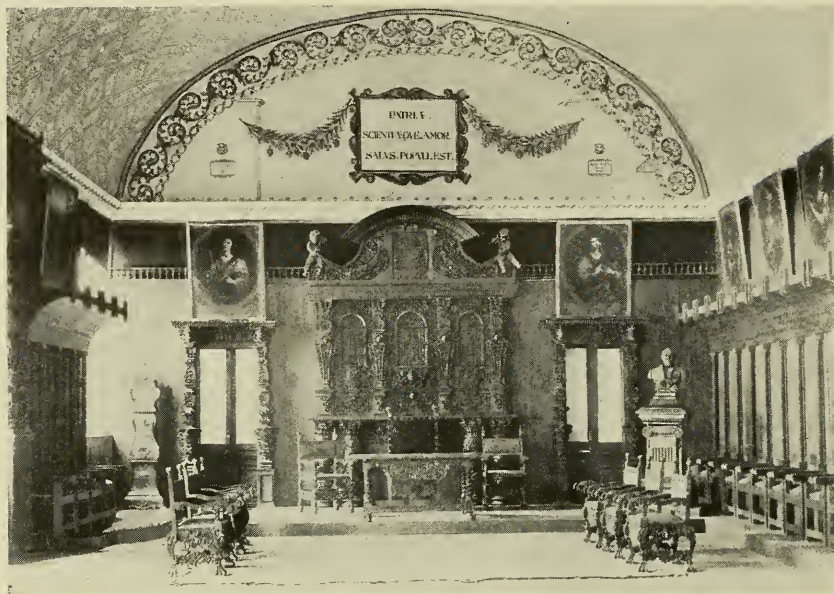
the university gave many of its best brains and much of its talent to the movement for emancipation.

National pride as well as national needs stimulated the creation of new universities after the winning of independence. The University of Buenos Aires was established in 1821, that of Montevideo in 1838. Five years later the University of Chile opened its doors, with the internationally known scholar, Andrés Bello, as rector. The aims of these institutions were "to foster national culture, based upon the observation and study of the national territory, its people and their customs, and its history . . . and to create a literature and a science which should have for their subject the nation itself."

Universities under the republican régime developed a pronounced tendency toward decentralization, a predominance of the study of law and medicine and an almost complete dependence on the government for support. Geographic barriers, lack of

communications and a strong sense of provincialism led to the establishment of isolated professional schools. Even in the large capitals, where a number of such schools existed in the same community, this separation prevailed. Colonial precedent and the peculiar social and political conditions existing in the nineteenth century gave marked emphasis to the study of law and medicine. The University of Montevideo, for example, was nothing more than a faculty of law until 1876, in which year there was added a faculty of medicine, followed ten years later by a school of engineering.

These professional schools, it should be remarked, did not aim to prepare lawyers, doctors and engineers with a narrow professional viewpoint and training. On the contrary, they managed to give a broad, humanistic emphasis to their studies, producing a type of citizen who had a multiple field of interests and who could easily adapt himself to a career in literature, the



Courtesy of Alfonso Pruneda

HALL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MEXICO

In this colonial hall degrees are conferred on students of the University of Mexico, which opened its doors 83 years earlier than Harvard.

arts, diplomacy, public administration, teaching or science. In this respect the professional schools of the republican period, in spite of their limited means, achieved a synthesis in the education of their students which has not been attained by many modern universities.

For many of the universities that survived the colonial régime, the XIXth century was a period of storm and stress. That of San Felipe at Santiago disappeared in 1842, to make way for the University of Chile. That of Guadalajara, except for a few of its faculties, was extinct from 1869 to 1925. Even the venerable Royal and Pontifical University of Mexico was buffeted by the currents of social reform and national reconstruction. The liberals, who regarded it as a stronghold of clerical conservatism, closed it after their victory in the wars of reform, 1857-67. It remained closed until 1910, when it was revived by

Justo Sierra, then Minister of Education. A second and radical reorganization was carried out in 1929, the year from which the charter of the present National Autonomous University of Mexico dates.

The creation of new universities and the reorganization of the old ones characterizes the third or modern period, which has brought Latin America into close economic and cultural contacts with western Europe and the United States. Among the most recent institutions are the University of El Litoral, Argentina (1890), the University of Concepción, Chile (1919); the University of Minas Geraes, Brazil (1927); the University of Panama (1935); and the University of São Paulo (1935). In most instances, these new universities represent a fusion of the old professional schools that had maintained an independent status. This is well illustrated by the University of São Paulo, formed by the integration of

the faculties of law (1827), medicine (1891), agriculture (1901), education (1933) and the Polytechnic Institute (1893). A similar process has taken place since the reorganization in 1935 of the National University of Colombia, which has absorbed a number of pre-existing professional schools like the Agricultural Institute of Medellín. Control over these schools, formerly held by various national ministries, such as those of agriculture, education and industry, has been transferred to the administrative officers of the new university.

Exceptions to this tendency are the National Universities of El Litoral and Cuyo, in Argentina. Their faculties are located in various cities. This arrangement allows a maximum of administrative centralization together with a flexible adaptation to the economic and social conditions in the areas served by the university.

There are 67 universities in Latin America, of which 41 are under national control and 9 under that of state or local governments. The other 17 are privately controlled. The distribution by nations of the private universities is irregular. Chile has four as against one controlled by the Government. By contrast, of Argentina's six universities only one is private.

Academically, the Latin American university is based upon the *facultad* (faculty), which is often composed of various *escuelas* (schools) specializing in related branches within the scope of each faculty. To these faculties and schools are attached *institutos* (institutes) for research. Occasionally, there is a *colegio*, a secondary school under the control and guidance of the university. Typical of this structure is the National University of Buenos Aires, which has faculties of law, medical science, philosophy and letters, agronomy



SOR JUANA INÉS DE LA CRUZ

Sor Juana, born in 1651, was called by her Mexican contemporaries "the Tenth Muse." She not only was a poet and musician, but also had a remarkable grasp of philosophy, literature, physics, mathematics, history, and languages. She maintained that women should be granted equal privileges with men in the field of learning.

and economics. There are schools of medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, obstetrics, commerce, and architecture. There are *institutos* such as those of surgery, philology and literature, and finally, the Colegio Nacional of Buenos Aires.

Administratively, supreme authority in most cases is vested in the University Council, composed of the rector (president), the deans of the faculties, the directors of the schools and institutes, and the elected delegates of the teaching staff and students. Some councils have representatives of the alumni and of the national ministry of education. Each faculty has its own council presided over by the dean. A noteworthy characteristic of both the faculty and university councils is the

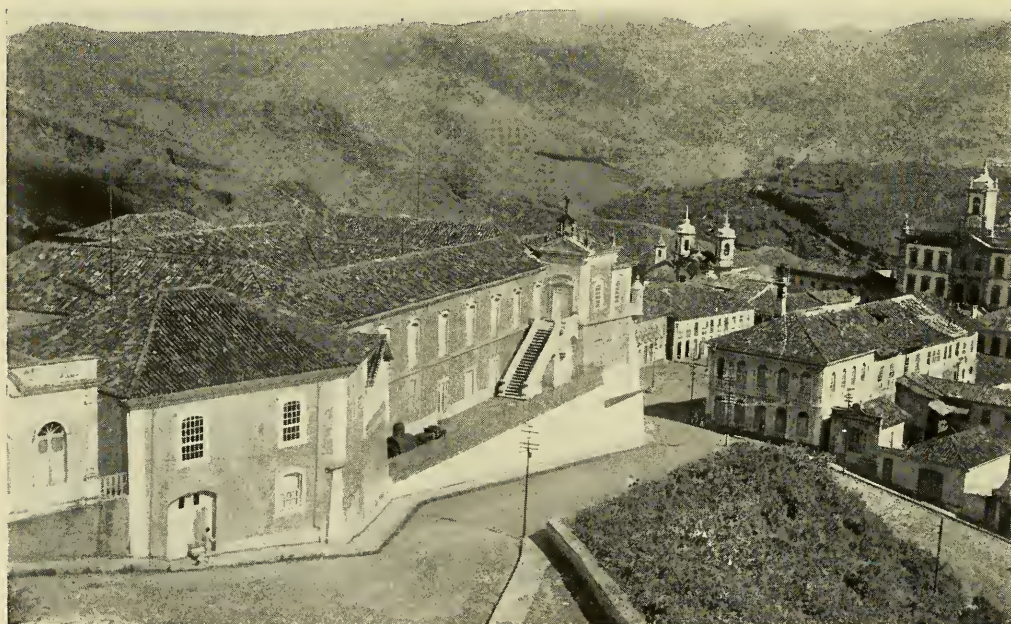
participation of elected representatives of the student body—a democratic procedure which has come down through the centuries.

The rector is elected in the great majority of instances by the University Council. He is usually an outstanding member of one of the faculties chosen because of scholarly attainments and not necessarily because of administrative ability. Full-fledged electoral campaigns are organized beforehand; election day finds the student body and the teaching staff in a state of animation. Occasionally this democratic fervor gets out of hand and there are "lamentable incidents originated by an ambient charged with emotions", as they are reported in the press. To the Latin American students these elections might almost be said to be the moral equivalent of football. The list of rectors of any important university would contain

the country's eminent names in law, medicine, diplomacy, science and the arts.

The study of medicine and law still attracts a considerable proportion of the students enrolled in Latin American institutions of higher learning. In 1937, the University of Habana had a total of 6,736 students of which approximately 2,800 were in the two faculties mentioned. In some of the smaller institutions, the proportion is even greater. Over fifty percent of the university students in Ecuador in 1930 were enrolled in medical and law courses. This does not mean that all those students actually entered these professions. Tradition and the cultural prestige long attached to these callings entice many who have no need or disposition to engage in them.

With rare exceptions, the professor in a Latin American university is a lawyer, an engineer, an artist or a physician actively



THE SCHOOL OF MINES, OURO PRETO

The building at the left, the palace of the colonial governors of Minas Geraes, a region rich in gold, iron, manganese, diamonds, and other minerals, has been used as a School of Mines for Brazil since 1876.

CUBAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

The specimens collected by the *Atlantis*, on a deep-sea exploring expedition in Cuban waters sponsored jointly by the University of Habana and Harvard University, attracted visits from the science classes of the former institution.



Courtesy of Thomas Barbour

working in his own profession. He gives only such time and attention to his teaching as his other duties will allow. The low salaries paid to professors reflect this system of part-time teaching, which is generally regarded as undesirable. Those who teach for low salaries, or the many who often teach for no compensation at all, consider the prestige gained by their association with the university as a reward for their services. Professors are selected through a rigorous and complicated competitive system which practically closes the way to foreigners.

Student organization as a rule takes the form of a general federation, composed of the associations of students in the schools of law, medicine, engineering, education and the like. It is through these associations that delegates are elected to the university council, student needs are expressed and movements organized to bring such needs to the attention of the authorities. The "free student" movement, which was aimed at dull or incompetent teachers, established through strikes and demonstrations the right of students to take final examinations without attending

lectures. This type of student action is one that is deeply woven in the traditions of university life, dating from even before the protest of six students of Bogotá who walked out one day in 1586 after the archbishop had ordered them "to serve daily in the cathedral and to sing in the choir at the canonical hours."

All universities require for admission the secondary school certificate or its equivalent. In those countries where the secondary school course is considered inadequate for the preparation of future university students, the university sometimes establishes its own preparatory school, at which attendance of all candidates for entrance to any of the faculties is required. The countries that are particularly stringent in this regard are Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Uruguay. These preparatory schools are a vestige of the time when the universities exercised a close and sometimes stifling control of all secondary education, which was widely regarded until recent years as strictly preparatory for admission to the professional schools. In place of attendance at a university-controlled prepara-

tory school, Ecuador and Colombia demand the completion of a seven-year course in the public secondary school as a prerequisite for entrance to the university.

Standards for the granting of degrees vary considerably from country to country. The doctorate is usually awarded on completion of the course in law or philosophy and literature, which covers from five to seven years. The presentation of a thesis is generally required.

Foreigners wishing to enroll for credit in a university are required to submit a high school diploma or its equivalent and a birth certificate, and to have more than a passing knowledge of the language of the country. Since few Latin American universities keep their catalogs up to date, the best procedure for a foreign student is to write directly to the dean of the faculty in which he is interested in taking work.

Few universities have been favored with private endowments on the scale known in the United States. The case of the Federico Santa María Technical University of Chile, which was created exclusively from funds donated by the millionaire and philanthropist whose name it bears, is an exception which emphasizes the dependence of the institutions of higher learning in Latin America on public funds. National and state governments not only meet current expenses; they also construct the buildings and provide the equipment. Sources of income for the universities specified by law include private foundations and government subsidies, but the former are practically negligible. In 1937 the income of the University of Habana was 900,000 pesos, all of which was provided by the national government.

The liberal concessions made to students in the form of scholarships, low tuition fees and exemption from fees and assessments considerably reduces another source of revenue. The University of Chile

exempts more than 1,700 of its 7,000 students from the payment of tuition. In the University of Mexico an average of five to ten pesos is charged per semester course, if the student passes it; in addition there are nominal laboratory charges. The average tuition cost in Argentina is 72 pesos, the National University standing highest with 92 pesos and that of Tucumán lowest with 10 pesos.

This dependence on the government for financial support makes the autonomy for which Latin American universities have long struggled more of a theory than a fact. Political changes are often reflected in administrative and academic instability. The great interest that students take in political matters is due partly to the immediate influence that such matters have on the university. Discussion and agitation on public issues by students and professors sometimes leads to the suspension of classes. The closing of the University of Habana in 1930 "to assure the public peace and order and to defend the national sovereignty" indicates the close relationship between politics and university life that exists in some countries.

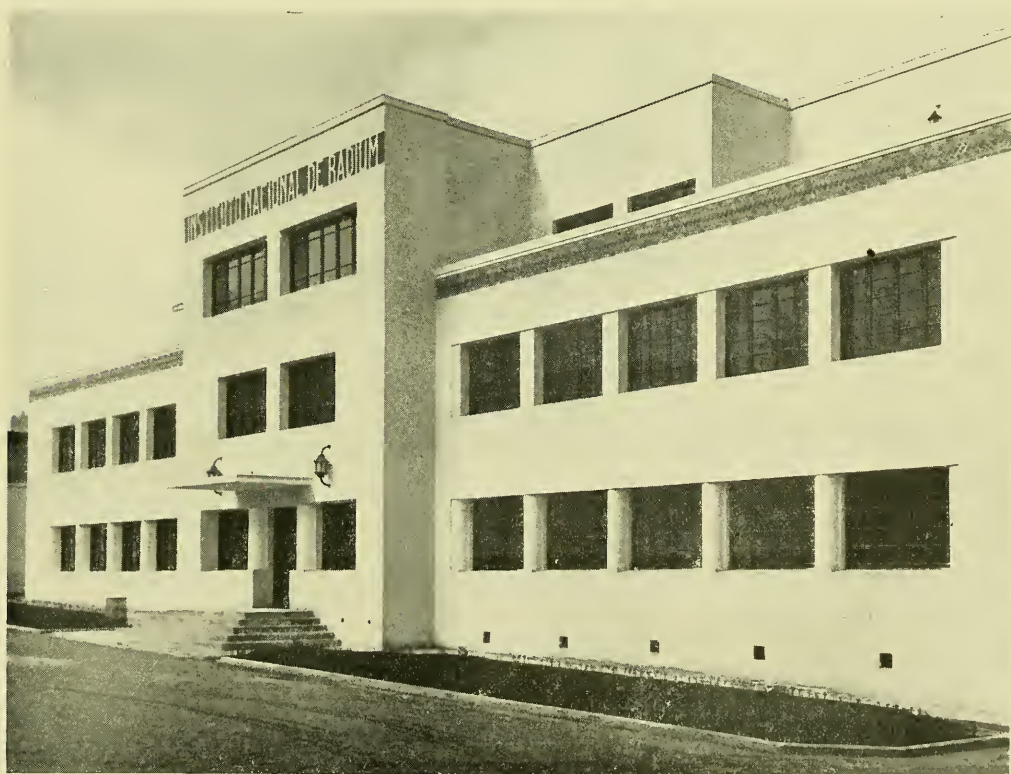
The modern university in Latin America is, on the whole, an institution with broadening horizons in respect to both its position in society and its daily relationships with its students. Its general aims are "to impart higher education and to conduct scientific research on problems of general importance, and to prepare technicians and experts who shall be useful in society." Through its publications, which include some of the best learned journals on the continent, and by the hospitality it offers the leading minds of the day, the university exercises great influence in every sphere of national life.

One aspect of this influence which is of increasing and practical importance is the work of the numerous *institutos* and *escuelas*

which are everywhere carrying on research. Such are the Escuela de Ingenieros Agrónomos y Azucareros (School of Agricultural and Sugar Engineers) of Cuba, founded in 1900 by Enrique José Varona; the Instituto de Geología of Mexico, which has functioned since 1891; the world-famous Instituto Butantán, attached to the University of São Paulo; the Instituto Nacional de Radium, which cooperates closely with the National University of Bogotá; and the institutes of social research in the universities of Mexico and El Litoral. In the laboratories and seminars of these institutes problems of scientific interest and social value are attacked and solved. A

notable example of this was the discovery by the Instituto de Biología of Mexico that blindness among thousands of peasants living in tropical areas is caused by a sand fly, whose sting deposits in the blood stream a parasite which eventually destroys the optic nerve. In Cuba, Brazil, Argentina, Chile and Puerto Rico, to name only a few places, multiple problems of public health, hygiene, commerce, industry and agriculture are engaging the attention of these institutes.

Some of these new universities—or the old universities with new life—have stepped boldly out of academic precincts to carry knowledge and culture to the masses.



Courtesy of Colombian Legation

THE NATIONAL RADIIUM INSTITUTE, BOGOTÁ

Research institutes affiliated with Latin American universities carry on investigations into widely divergent subjects, including sugar growing and refining, geology, geology, antivenins, and the cause and treatment of cancer.



Courtesy of Guatemalan Government Printing Office

THE SCHOOL OF MEDICINE, GUATEMALA CITY

University extension work, which Juvenal Hernández, rector of the University of Chile, described as "the bridge between the erudition of the cloisters and the needs of the people," has taken varied forms. The faculties, schools and institutes organize popular lectures, broadcast radio programs, hold exhibitions of graphic and plastic art, give concerts of symphonic and chamber music, crusade against illiteracy, encourage unknown artists and composers, send educational missions to the dark corners of the countryside, and in general throw open their doors to anyone, however humble his station, who desires knowledge.

Two aspects of these extension activities merit more than passing comment: adult education among workers and the creation of summer schools. In a number of countries there have been established what are known as "popular universities" which

fill the gap in the education of young workers. Of a different type is the Workers University of Mexico. Originally established as the Gabino Barreda University in 1934, it has grown rapidly, creating seminars for economic and social research, organizing courses in history, languages and political science, conducting field investigations and holding a summer school. The purpose of this institution is "to provide a popular institute of higher learning for the working classes of Mexico."

In line with the search for new opportunities for service, several universities have established summer schools in which special attractions are arranged for foreign students. The oldest of these is the summer school of the University of Mexico, which dates from 1921. More recently the University of Chile has opened a

school which meets during the month of January. The Chilean Government offers inducements to foreigners in the form of reduced railway rates for travel within the country and a few tuition scholarships. Over sixty students from other American republics attended the summer school at Santiago in 1938. Other universities that have held summer sessions in the past are those of Rio de Janeiro, Puerto Rico, Panama, and Quito.

Increasing opportunities for a larger number of young people, together with the enterprising spirit shown by the universities, explain their rapid growth in recent years. The National University of Buenos Aires has an enrolment of over 14,000 students, that of Montevideo well over 11,000. The University of Chile increased its enrolment from 4,400 students in 1933 to more than 7,000 in 1939. Both the universities of Mexico and Habana have over 8,000 students. These figures include persons enrolled in extension classes and represent some duplications.

All the Latin American universities admit women students, the first institution to have taken this radical step being the University of Chile in 1877. Today women are to be found enrolled in practically all the faculties, but their preference seems to lie in those of law, medicine, pharmacy, philosophy, and letters. An interesting

though not typical example is that of the University of Habana, where in 1937 3,204 out of 5,449 students were women. As yet the woman graduate does not find the same equality of opportunity in the profession of her choice that she is now able to find in the university.

Not the least sign of the spirit of the new universities is the widespread interest in the construction of campuses like those to be found in the United States. The University of Concepción already has such a campus. Habana is in the midst of an extensive construction program which will enlarge its present campus and which will be completed by 1940; in Bogotá and Rio de Janeiro ambitious plans have been drafted for *ciudades universitarias*, as they are called. Mexico, Lima, Quito, and Buenos Aires have similar plans.

As yet not many of these more stately mansions, designed in the clean, incisive lines of functional architecture, have risen over the continent. Until they do, Latin American students will be content with the colonnaded patios, the vaulted corridors and the beamed lecture halls in which bishops of strong will created a new domain for learning, little dreaming that where they once speculated on the number of angels that could dance on the point of a needle, men are now trying to count the electrons that race within a molecule.

The Fourth Centenary of Printing in America

RAFAEL HELIODORO VALLE

In addressing the delegates to the Third International Conference of American States at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, on July 31, 1906, the Hon. Elihu Root, then Secretary of State of the United States, said: "I bring from my country a special greeting to her elder sisters in the civilization of America." It is interesting to recall that Mexico, Peru, and Bolivia all had established printing presses before the landing of the Pilgrims on Plymouth Rock. While Mexico is celebrating the fourth centenary of printing, the three hundredth anniversary of the introduction of a press into the United States is being commemorated. The first press in the United States was brought over from England and set up in Cambridge, Massachusetts, by Stephen Day and his son, Matthew. The first work produced on the press in 1639 was called the "Freeman's Oath" and the first book from the press, issued in 1640, was known as the "Bay Psalm Book."—EDITOR.

JUNE 12, 1539, the date on which the German printer, Juan Cromberger, and the Italian, Juan Paoli or Juan Pablos, signed a contract for the formal establishment of a press in Mexico—a document which was found in the *Archivo de Protocolos* in Seville by Dr. José Gestoso y Pérez—marks a red-letter day in the history of printing in America (1).¹ It is possible that before that date there may have been printing in the capital of New Spain. That is something which will be determined if ever there appears a document, a leaflet, or a book, whose imprint shows a date earlier than 1539. There was indeed a printer prior to that date, a man named Esteban Martín, according to a notice which appeared in the *Actas de Cabildo* (2) (3).

The earnest study of this historical problem, and of others that derive from it, has claimed the attention of scholars and bibliophiles of the caliber of Joaquín García Icazbalceta (4), Marcos Jiménez de la Espada (5), George Parker Winship (6), José Toribio Medina (7), José Gestoso y

Pérez (8), Nicolás León (9) (10), W. W. Blake (11), Pedro Henríquez Ureña (12), Victoriano Salado Álvarez (13), Demetrio S. García (14), Emilio Valton (15), Henry R. Wagner (16), Juan B. Iguíniz (17), José Torre Revello (18), Francisco Pérez Salazar (19), Lucy E. Osborne (20), y Federico Gómez de Orozco (21). Furthermore, there have been cited as evidence the testimony and affirmations of chroniclers of the XVIth century, such as Fray Agustín Dávila Padilla (22), Francisco López de Gomara (23), Antonio de Herrera (24), y Gil González Dávila (25), and the great bishop Fray Juan de Zumárraga (26).

But the document found by Gestoso y Pérez is of such definite nature that Dr. Valton was right in designating as a "hypothetical and preparatory period" the time before 1539, without discarding the possibility that before that date there may have been "some attempt at printing." In referring to the first Franciscans who, headed by Fray Martín de Valencia, arrived in Mexico in 1524, Valton says that it may be ventured that they were in America "the initiators of some primitive

¹ The numbers in parentheses refer to the works consulted by the author, enumerated in the bibliography at the end of the article.



Watercolor by Vernon Howe Bailey. Reproduced with the permission of William T. Dewart, from the "New York Sun"

THE HOUSE IN MEXICO CITY IN WHICH THE FIRST PRINTING PRESS
IN AMERICA WAS INSTALLED

attempt at a stamp or press, making, for example, by their own ingenuity, or ordering to be made by the Indian neophytes, some wood cuts which represented the images and mysteries of the Christian religion, which then were printed on maguey paper or on whatever other ma-

terial was customarily used for the codices. They also may have brought from Spain some of the plates for engravings, with the images and religious objects which were indispensable to them in their ministry." Valton thinks that "the problem of the introduction of printing in Mexico could

only have presented itself when the spiritual conquest of the West Indies had been fairly well consolidated; that is to say, when on the one hand the Castilian language had been sufficiently diffused among the natives and on the other hand the indigenous tongues had become sufficiently known and used by the missionaries, then printing came to the fore as a useful and, to a certain point, a necessary tool for the government of New Spain, ecclesiastical as well as civil, in its instruction and evangelization of the Indians."

Antecedents

The formal establishment of printing is one of the glories of the Franciscans (27). When in 1533 Zumárraga, the first Bishop of Mexico, was in Spain, he wrote—or it is believed he wrote at that time—a memorial in which he said: "Also, because it would be a very useful and convenient thing to have there a printing press and paper mill, and since there are persons who would like to go there if Your Majesty will favor them with the means of supporting their art, may Your Lordship and Your Graces thus dispose." Then it happened that Zumárraga and Don Antonio de Mendoza, who was going over to New Spain (Mexico) as Viceroy, exchanged ideas and agreed, among other things, upon the installation of a printing press. The Royal Decree of June 6, 1542, made note of it thus: "It has been told to me that the said Juan Cromberger, at the instance of our Viceroy in New Spain and of the Bishop of Mexico, sent workmen and a press to that country" (15). On May 6, 1538, Zumárraga said in a new memorial to the Emperor: "There can be little progress in the matter of printing because of the scarcity of paper. This impedes the many works which are now ready here and others which were ready to be reprinted, since the most



ANTONIO DE MENDOZA, FIRST VICEROY OF MEXICO, 1535-51

It was largely owing to the initiative of this able administrator that the first printing press in America was set up in Mexico City, probably in 1536.

necessary things are lacking and but little has come from there." These phrases of Zumárraga, if indeed they imply that there was rudimentary printing before 1539, are reinforced by the fact that before that date "various works were sent out of Mexico to be printed in Europe, especially in Seville." It is possible, too, that if Esteban Martín, printer, was in Mexico before that date, "it may be conjectured that he was there as a representative of Cromberger" (15).

The statement of Dávila y Padilla, affirming that the first book printed was the *Escala Espiritual* of San Juan Clímaco, translated by Fray Juan de Estrada, may also be mentioned. In this respect Dr. Valton says: "The fact that up to the

present time no copy of the *Escala Espiritual* has been found is not sufficient cause, as Icazbalceta observes, to deny its existence. There are many other books indisputably printed in Mexico in the XVIth century of which not even a fragment is known to exist today. Furthermore, it must be taken into account that certainly few copies of the *Escala* were printed, and those especially for the use of the student novices of Santo Domingo of Mexico—a sufficient reason to explain their early disappearance.” It is also probable that before 1539 “there may have been printed other brief items such as ABC’s, small primers, loose leaf powers of attorney, promissory notes, etc.” (15).

Cromberger’s Press

Valton tells us that when García Icazbalceta, “not knowing the terms of the first contract made in Spain for the introduction of printing”, signified “1536, shortly after the beginning of the year” as the most likely date, nothing was yet known of the document which named Juan Cromberger and Juan Paoli, “a Lombard, native of Brescia”, as those who definitely established “the first formal, complete, and permanent press.” It is not known if Paoli arrived in September or at the beginning of October of that year.

The terms of that contract were as follows: “That for all the time (of the contract) Juan Pablos would fill the office of type-setter, just as he had done in Seville, with all diligence and care, managing the press and overseeing the operators, and doing as a daily task 3,000 double sheets (?), as he had done in Seville; that Cromberger would furnish paper, ink, type, and all the appurtenances, stipulating the manner of filling orders and meeting their mutual responsibilities; that everything pertaining to the business belonged to Cromberger; that there would

be a box with two keys in which to keep the cash; Juan Pablos would have one key and a person designated by Cromberger the other; that the wife of Pablos, Jerónima Gutiérrez, would serve in the house in any way necessary, without collecting any wages other than her maintenance; that from the profits which would accrue in ten years there would be taken first for Cromberger the capital invested during all that time, and of the remainder, one fifth would be for Pablos and the other four fifths for the said Cromberger; that in every book which might be printed there would be placed at the end, ‘Printed in the City of Mexico in the House of Juan Cromberger’, and no other name would be placed there. Before proceeding with the printing of books ordered from them, the permission of the Bishop of Mexico and other usual approvals, according to decree, would have to be solicited. The duration of the association would be ten years from the date of the instrument, which was agreed to ‘in Seville in the office of Alonso de la Barrera, notary public, Thursday, the twelfth day of June in the year of Our Lord One Thousand Five Hundred and Thirty-nine. Witnesses present were Diego Felipe Farfan and Pedro Yrygoyen, notaries, of Seville.’

“In an additional contract signed the same day, June 12, 1539, the value of the press, ink, and paper is estimated at 100,000 maravedis; the cost of provisions, etc., at 70,000; the price of a negro slave named Pedro at 100 ducats; and the total of the passage of Juan Pablos, his wife, the pressman, and the slave at 50 ducats.

“With the pressman, named Gil Barbero, Juan Cromberger also executed a special agreement by public deed in the office of Alonso de la Barrera on the same date as the contracts referred to above. The pressman obligated himself to lend his services, under conditions such as were the custom

in Spain, for a term of three years, and he was to have a salary of two and a half ducats a month during the journey; payment of his passage, food, and drink; and five and a half ducats from the time of his arrival in Mexico; there being advanced to him the sum of twelve ducats" (15).

Chronology

1530.—Juan Cromberger published in Seville *Vita Christi Cartuxano* by Fray Ambrosio Montesino, which Valton calls a "preliminary sample of printing in America."

1539.—Juan Pablos printed the "first known book": *Breve y más compendiosa Doctrina Christiana en lengua castellana y mexicana*, by order of Zumárraga. The first who made reference to it was Don Marcos Jiménez de la Espada; and "the present whereabouts of this unique copy are unknown" (18).

1540.—Juan Cromberger died.

1543.—There was published in the City of Mexico the "first book printed in America of which a complete copy is as yet known to exist": *Doctrina breue muy p(ro)uechosa de las cosas q p(er)tenecen a la fe catholica y a nra cristiandad en estilo llano p(ar)a comu(n) intelige(n)cia*, by Fray Juan de Zumárraga (15).

1546.—Juan Pablos first placed his name on the imprint of the *Cancionero Spiritual* of Fray Bartolomé de las Casas.

1550.—The Sevillian, Antonio de Espinosa, first type founder, appeared as a worker in the house of Pablos.

1554.—Juan Pablos published *Recognitio, summularum* by Fray Alonso de la Veracruz, the first text book printed in America for students of philosophy; and *Dialectica resolutio*, edited by the same author, the first publication in America of the works of Aristotle.

1555.—Juan Pablos published the *Vocabulario en la lengua Castellana y Mexicana*

by Fray Alonso de Molina, the first dictionary printed in America.

1557.—Juan Pablos published *Phisica Speculatio* by Fray Alonso de la Veracruz, the first physics book printed in America.

1560.—Juan Pablos became a Spanish citizen.

1561.—Juan Pablos died in the City of Mexico.

1566.—Antonio de Espinosa published the *Summarius* of Fray Bartolomé de Ledesma, the first theological treatise printed in America.

1570.—Pedro Ocharte, a Frenchman, published *Opera medicinalia* by Francisco Bravo, the first book on medicine printed in America.

1571.—Juan Ortiz, "engraver in metals, carver of wood, and maker of gold thread", made the first woodcut in America (28) for the *Doctrina en Lengua Guasteca*, published by Ocharte. In that year, or before, Ocharte and Antonio de Espinosa published the *Graduale Dominicale*, first printed document in the history of music in America, prepared and edited by Juan Hernández (29) (30) (31) (32).

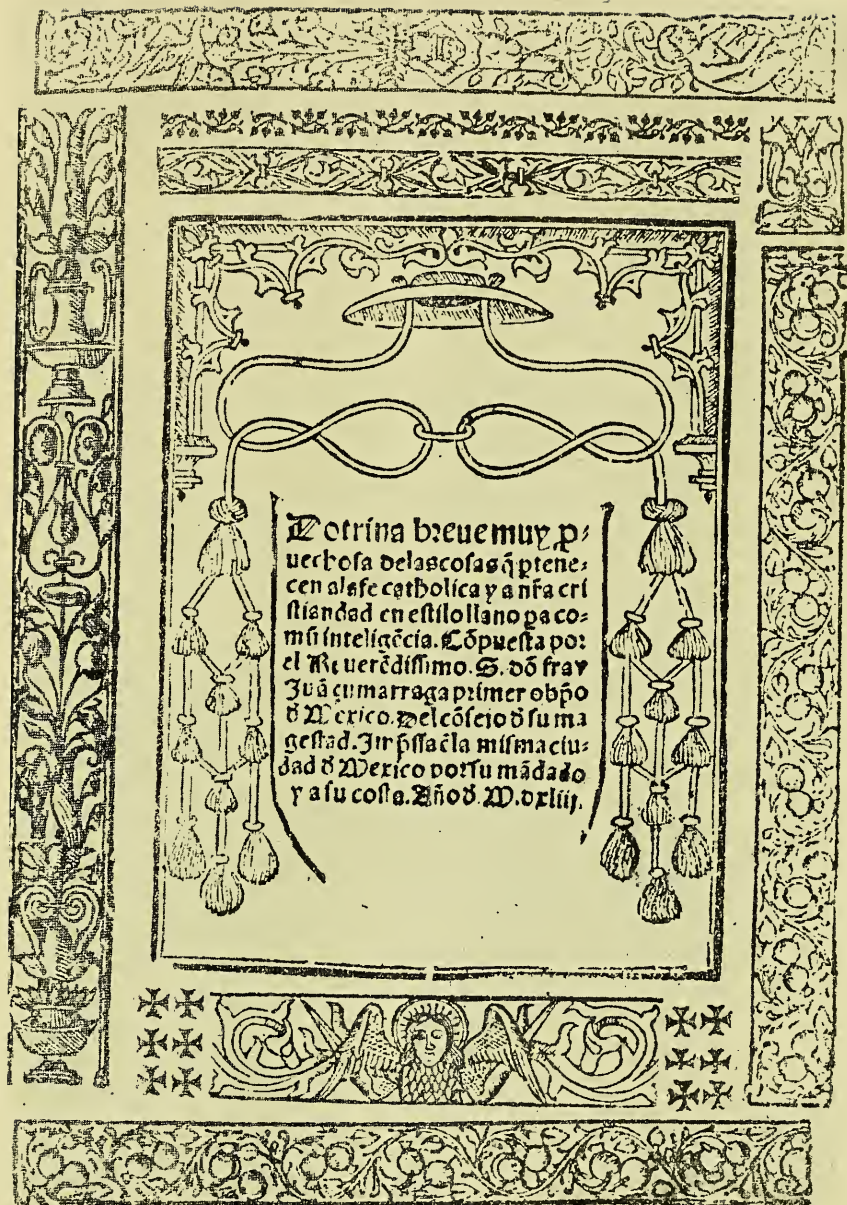
1584.—Ocharte published *Questio Pro doctoratu in Jure Pontificio* by Pedro González de Prado, the first university thesis on canonical law printed in America.

1598.—Pedro Balli published *Textus Relegendus ex Sapientissimi Hippocratis* by Fernando Rangel, the first university thesis on medicine printed in America.

Printers and Incunabula

Valton has arranged the printers of the XVIth century in this chronological order: Juan Pablos, Antonio de Espinosa, Antonio Álvarez, Pedro Ocharte, Pedro Balli, Antonio Ricardo, the widow of Ocharte, Cornelius Adrián César, Melchor Ocharte, Luis Ocharte Figueroa, and Enrico Martínez.

Some "Mexican incunabula" (1543—



Courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington

TITLE PAGE OF THE *DOCTRINA BREUE*, PRINTED IN MEXICO, 1543

This work by Bishop Zumárraga is the earliest American book of which a complete example is known. The copy owned by the Library of Congress has recently been on exhibition in the Hispanic Room.

1600) are in the National Library of Mexico, the National Library of Santiago de Chile, the University of Texas Library, the Library of Congress in Washington, the John Carter Brown Library in Providence, the New York Public Library, the Hispanic Society Library, the Huntington Library in San Marino, California, the Library of the Stanford University, the National Library in Paris, and the Vatican and Laurentian Libraries. Among the bibliophiles who own some of them, mention may be made of Demetrio S. García, G. H. Conway, Salvador Ugarte, Mariano Cuevas, S. J., Francisco Pérez Salazar, and Rafael Álvarez.

In casting up a balance of Mexican book production from 1539 to 1821, the following numbers of publications have been known and described: XVIth century, 231; XVIIth century, 1,838; XVIIIth century, 6,890; and XIXth century, 2,673: a total of 11,632 publications (33).

Mexico has the distinction of having had the first printing-house in this hemisphere. From Mexico Antonio Ricardo went to establish a press in Peru, which he operated in Lima from 1584 to 1605. Also from Mexico the printer José de Pineda Ibarra went to Guatemala, at the behest of Bishop Payo Enríquez de Rivera, to establish a press there in 1660 (34); and it was a Mexican, the great Viceroy of La Plata, Don Juan José de Vértiz, who took the art of printing from the city of Córdoba to the city of Buenos Aires in 1780 (35).

Printing in America

In conclusion, there is given a chronological list of the countries of America (36) (37), with the dates—some of which are disputable—referring either to the arrival of the first printer or to the oldest known publication:

1539.—Mexico (38).

1580.—Lima.

1610.—Bolivia.

1639.—United States.

1660.—Guatemala (39) (40).

1705.—Paraguay.

1707.—Cuba.

1736.—Haiti.

1738.—Colombia.

1742.—Nicaragua.

1747.—Brazil.

1749.—Chile.

1754.—Ecuador (in Ambato).

1764.—Argentina (41).

1783.—Dominican Republic.

1807.—Uruguay.

1820.—El Salvador.

1827.—Costa Rica.

1830.—Honduras.

Mexico City, June 12, 1939.

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PHISICA, SPECVL latio, Aeditaper R.

P. F. ALPHONSVMI A VERACRUCIS, AV-
gustinianæ familie Proximinalē, artiū, & sacre Theologiæ Doctorem, atq̃
cathedræ primæ in Academia Mexicana in noua Hispania moderatorē



Accessit cōpendium spheræ Cāpani ad complementū tractatus de celo:
Excudebat Mexici Ioā. Pau. Brissē. Anno Dñice incarnationis, 1557

reob del conuent de s. francisco de mexico,

Alonso de la Veracruz

Courtesy of the "Archivo Valle"

TITLE PAGE OF THE *PHISICA, SPECVLATIO*, BY FRAY ALONSO DE LA VERACRUZ

This was the first textbook printed in America; it came from the press of Juan Pablos, Mexico City, in 1557.

Graduale

Dominicale.



Secūdum normam Missalis noui ex decreto
 Sancti Concilij Triden. nunc denū, ex industria, studio & labore admodum Reue-
 rendi Bachalaurei Joannis Hernandez, scriptum, & in numeris mendis & in-
 perfluitatibus (quibus scaturiebat) notularum canens repurgatum. Su-
 peradditis & de nouo compositis per eundem Bachalaureum, tum An-
 troctibus officij, tum Gradualibus, Alleluia, & Tractibus, tum denū
 Offertorijs, & Communionibus, quorum antea non fuerat vñ.

Mexici.

Inedibus Antoni Espinosa.

Sumptibus & expensis Petri Gtho. re.

1576.



Courtesy of the "Archivo Valle"

TITLE PAGE OF THE *GRADUALE DOMINICALE*

The *Graduale Dominicale*, by Juan Hernández, was printed in Mexico by Antonio Espinosa in 1576. It was the first book of music to be published in the New World.

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The Introduction of Printing into Panama

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CASTILLA DEL ORO, later called Tierra Firme, offered the Spaniards no practical inducements to remain. The climate, less favorable than that of Guatemala or of Peru, held no attractions for them, and on the other hand, there was no opportunity for a short cut to wealth, such as was offered by the vast empires of the Incas in Peru, the Chibchas in Colombia, and the Aztecs in Mexico. Therefore the enterprising Spaniards established no cultural institutions in the country. Highways, fortifications, and city walls were absolutely necessary for the defense of the territory. The public buildings and churches, whose ruins still are standing, were the foundation on which Spanish civil and ecclesiastical power rested.

The Iberians only passed through Panama, for they considered it as just one stage on the road to riches. Life was hard for all classes of society on the Isthmus, and difficulties were increased by frequent uprisings of Indians and negroes, by pirate raids, and especially by lack of trade, which went by way of Cape Horn.

The University of Panama, named for St. Francis Xavier, was short-lived, and Panamanians went abroad to other cultural centers. Outstanding examples are Francisco de Ribera (Brother Hernando de la Cruz) and the Aizpurus, who went to Quito; Ayala and Ortiz, to Madrid; López Ruiz, to Bogotá; Luna and Victoria, to Trujillo; Gorrichátegui, to Cuzco; Coronado and Ulloa, to Lima; and Antequera and Castro, to Paraguay.

A few patriotic Panamanians had a printing press imported into Panama City, as a preliminary step towards emancipation from Spain. Their aim was to establish a liberal paper, as a part of their program for independence.

The printing equipment arrived in Panama in March 1820 from the United States, where it had been purchased by José María Goytía, and in the following month of April *La Miscelánea* first saw the light of day. It was a weekly paper, of general interest, edited by Juan José Argote, Manuel María Ayala, Juan José Calvo, and Mariano and Gaspar de Arosemena. The periodical was suspended during the administration of Viceroy Sámano. The *Miscelánea del Istmo de Panamá* appeared later, in 1821; it was published by the same printing establishment, which was called "The Free Press of Panama."

In addition to the above-mentioned publications, the Proclamation of the Chief Political Administrator of the Isthmus, General Juan de la Cruz Murgeón, dated September 7, 1821, and the Act of Independence of November 28, 1821, printed in the same year, are also known to have been issued.

The first book or pamphlet to come from the Free Press was issued in 1822. It is the *Exortación predicada en la Santa Iglesia Catedral de Panamá por el Dean Provisor General del Obispado Juan José Martínez en el día 25 de febrero de 1822 con motivo de jurarse la constitución de la República de Colombia* (Exhortation delivered in the

Cathedral of Panama by the Vicar General of the Bishopric, Juan José Martínez, on February 25, 1822, on the occasion of swearing allegiance to the constitution of the Republic of Colombia). A copy of this work is in the National Library at Lima.

The work is cited by José Toribio Medina in *Notas bibliográficas referentes a las*

primeras producciones de imprenta en algunas ciudades de la América Española (Santiago, Chile, 1904, p. 49) and by Mr. John Clyde Oswald in his *Printing in the Americas* (New York, 1937, p. 565), but neither mentions the introduction of the printing press into Panama. The foregoing brief account is, therefore, a contribution to the study of printing in America.

Maria Moors Cabot Awards to South American Newspapers

THE first annual Maria Moors Cabot prizes in journalism, granted to newspapers, press associations, or individual journalists on the basis of achievement advancing public understanding and sympathy among any two nations in the Western Hemisphere, were awarded on November 8, 1939, to Dr. Luis Miró Quesada, president of the board of directors of *El Comercio*, Lima, Peru, and Sr. José Santos Gollán, Sunday editor of *La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

The prizes, established at Columbia University by Dr. Godfrey Lowell Cabot of Boston in memory of his wife, were designed to recognize the service of the press as an agency of public education in the Americas. The awards consist of a bronze plaque for each newspaper and a gold medal for its representative.

The ceremony was held in the rotunda of Low Memorial Library. Dean Carl W. Ackerman of the Graduate School of Journalism of the University presented the candidates to President Nicholas Murray Butler. In conferring the medals, Dr. Butler said in his citations:

LUIS MIRÓ QUESADA: Outstanding citizen of the Peruvian Republic and the world; long a member of the Chamber of Deputies in the government of his country and four years Mayor of the City of Lima; later Peruvian Minister of Foreign Affairs and Peruvian delegate to the League of Nations, as well as Minister to Switzerland. . . .

JOSÉ SANTOS GOLLÁN: Who as professor of the history of journalism at the University of La Plata, and as a chief member of the editorial staff of *La Prensa*, has given a long generation of service to scholarship, to journalism and to the direct education of public opinion; outstanding authority in his own country in respect to all that concerns the people and government of the United States; helping to guide one of the truly great newspapers of the world. . . .

In announcing the awards, Dean Ackerman stated that one of the main contributions of *El Comercio* was its edition of May 4, 1939, a 210-page newspaper celebrating the 100th anniversary of its establishment. He considered the issue, which contained an authoritative history of Peru, covering its political, cultural, educational, economic, and social progress, as one of the greatest achievements of the Latin American press.

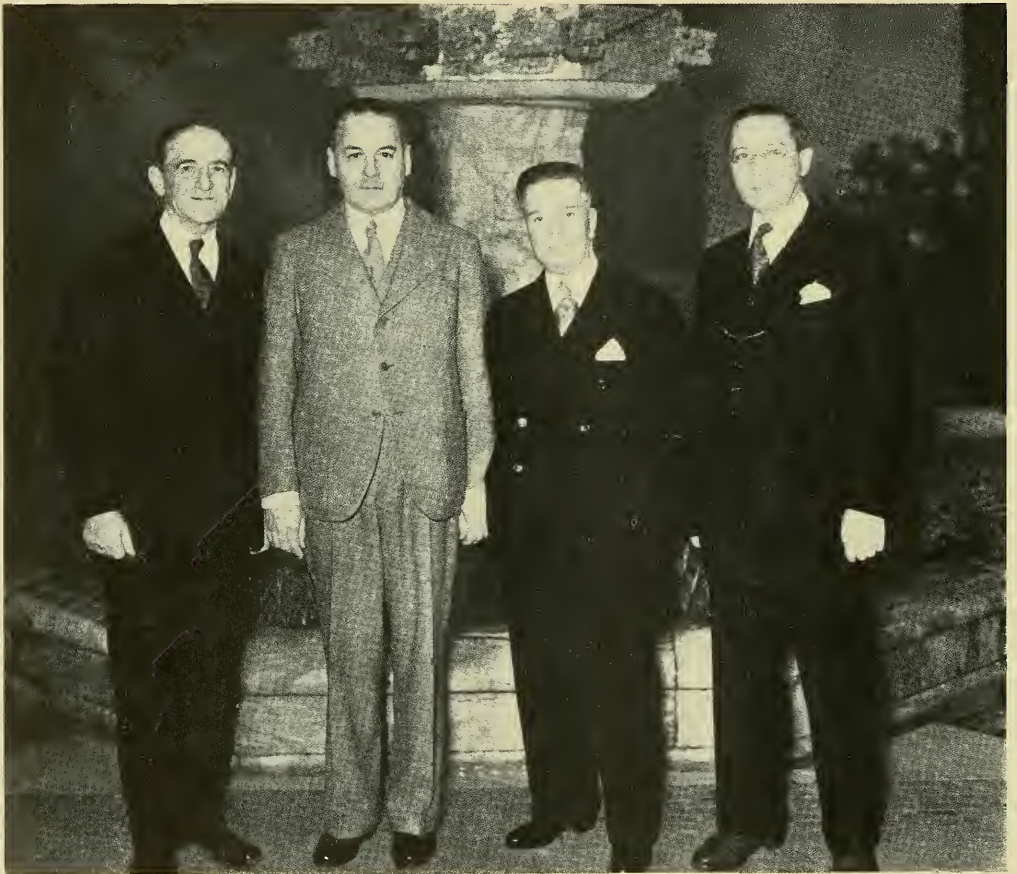
La Prensa, of Buenos Aires, generally acknowledged to be one of the 10 greatest

newspapers in the world, qualified for the award by its editorial articles on the 128th anniversary of Chilean independence and by its reporting of the Chaco peace negotiations and the Eighth International Conference of American States at Lima last December.

Editorial comment in metropolitan newspapers stressed the importance of understanding between the nations of this continent. In the course of an editorial the *New York Herald-Tribune* said:

What makes these awards particularly interesting, apart from the worthiness of the recipients, is the fact that this sort of recognition is at last being given to Latin-American newspapers. We say "at last" because for so long there has been hardly any proper understanding in the United States of the high quality of journalism that has been developed in Latin America. . . .

The Cabot prizes were established last year by Dr. Godfrey Lowell Cabot, of Boston, in memory of his wife. While not confined exclusively to Latin Americans, they are to be given for services in journalism in connection with the promotion of a closer understanding among the peoples of the Western World. This implies recognition of work



THE RECIPIENTS OF THE MARIA MOORS CABOT PRIZES

Dr. Luis Miró Quesada, of *El Comercio*, Lima, and Señor José Santos Gollán, of *La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, received these prizes on November 8 at Columbia University. Left to right: The Honorable L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union; Señor Gollán; Dr. Miró Quesada; and Dr. Carl W. Ackerman, Dean of the Graduate School of Journalism of Columbia University.

by Canadian and American newspapers as well as by those of Latin America. It is in keeping with the spirit of the gift that the first prizes have been presented to representatives of two of the southern republics.

Awards of this sort have a distinct value in establishing better feelings between the peoples of our hemisphere. They symbolize a new degree of understanding and appreciation on the part of the people of the United States who have long been looked upon as indifferent or hostile to the cultural achievements of Latin America. As the people of the two continents come to know each other better they are sure to understand each other better. This, in turn, will pave the way for more friendly co-operation. To the extent that the Cabot prizes help bring Latin American aspiration and achievements to the attention of North Americans they will help in achieving the realization of this ideal.

Dr. Miró Quesada and Señor Santos Gollán were honored at a luncheon given in New York on November 7 and attended by Mayor La Guardia, members of the Board of Trustees and the faculty of Columbia University, editors, publishers, members of press associations, and other prominent persons.

A few days later the visitors went to Washington, where they were entertained by their respective ambassadors and by the Hon. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union. They attended the regular press conference at the White House, and were guests of honor, with Dean Ackerman of Columbia University, at a luncheon given by the National Press Club. On this occasion Señor Santos Gollán said:

I am honored and very happy to be in this house of newspaper men, and in the agreeable company of you whom I consider twice my friends: because you are Americans, and because you are men of the press.

I am sure that I have no important thing to tell you, but some of our mutual friends have suggested that you might be interested in having some information about journalism in Argentina and especially about *La Prensa*, to whose staff I belong. I will speak, then, briefly on these two points.

Argentine journalism began with the revolutionary movement which established the country's political independence. In the early years, it existed only to spread the liberal ideas which constituted the essence of the revolutionary movement. After independence, journalism divided, as men's ideas divided, between those who favored a federal form of government, and those who wanted government strongly centralized. A little before 1830, Argentina fell under a tyranny which lasted almost a quarter of a century; during that time the Argentine press fled from its own soil and kept on fighting for liberty from the nearby countries of Uruguay, Chile, and Bolivia. Only one newspaper writer remained in Buenos Aires to aid tyranny with his pen—and he was not an Argentine.

When the dictatorship fell and the ensuing civil war was over, Argentina obtained its present federal constitution and achieved national unity. It was really then, about 1860, when our modern Argentine journalism was born.

The oldest daily newspaper published in Argentina is the English-language *Standard*, which was founded in 1861. That is not so strange when it is remembered that long before that year there were English-language newspapers in Buenos Aires, and that in Uruguay the first newspaper was published by the English during their invasion in 1807.

The next oldest daily of Buenos Aires is German—*Die Deutsche La Plata Zeitung*—founded in 1863. *La Capital* of Rosario was started in 1867; *La Prensa* of Buenos Aires in 1869, and *La Nación* of Buenos Aires three months later, in 1870.

Twenty-five years ago, we had in Argentina only 150 dailies and 80 magazines. Now we have 1,500 daily newspapers and 1,200 periodicals, edited in thirty different languages. That is, in a quarter of a century the dailies have multiplied ten times and the periodicals fifteen times.

The biggest circulation *La Prensa* has had for a single edition was 745,000 on January 1, 1935. On other special days, it has sold more than 600,000 copies, these usually being on holidays. Some of the most widely circulated editions have been those containing color maps of Argentina, America, or Europe.

You will better appreciate *La Prensa's* maximum circulation records when you recall that Argentina has only thirteen million people, or a tenth of the United States' population. A United States newspaper attaining comparable circulation, in view of the difference in population, would print nearly 7,500,000 copies daily.

A record of another kind was set up by *La*

Prensa when it published 7,936 separate advertisements in a single issue.

Argentine newspapers always give much space to foreign news, important because of the country's large international trade and the fact that one-fourth of our population is foreign-born.

This news is received by both cable and radio.

This emphasis on world news is not a new thing with us. In 1924 *La Prensa* received by cable the complete text of the Dawes Plan, some 25,000 words. Ten years ago, or in 1929, *La Prensa* printed an average of over 27,000 words of cable daily. That average runs much higher now. On last September 1 we received and published 59,000 words of cable and radio, and for the whole month of September, 1,317,200 words.

La Prensa takes just as much care with even the smallest want ad as it does with its news columns. Every advertisement is checked by a special control section, to insure that the readers are not fooled or defrauded; whoever presents a classified ad must be fully identified. Our business office is so completely separated from the editorial department that no editorial man can have anything to do with a matter concerning advertising. Official advertising is accepted only when judged to contain information of use to the public, and it is paid for in cash. No commercial credit is given to governmental or public offices. No advertising is accepted from public officials or administrations which contains opinions about the work a government department is doing, because publication of such matter might cause the public to think that *La Prensa* agrees with those opinions.

Similarly, we do not accept paid advertising from political parties, to promote either their candidates or their party programs. *La Prensa* considers that on these political matters the paper should publish only what the editors believe to be in the public interest, and that acceptance of such advertising would give an advantage to the party having the most money. Many such advertisements have been rejected.

La Prensa, in common with many other Argentine dailies, never publishes news of suicides, believing it prejudicial to society. When in some cases it is necessary to refer to the death of someone in such circumstances, the usual thing is to say that he died "in an unexpected manner."

Nor does the paper publish divorce decrees or news of slander or similar suits.

I will not go into more detail which you might find dull, but I do not want to end without saying a few words about what is right now a predominant thought of Argentine newspaper men who

work on independent newspapers and who believe in America and in liberty.

I hasten to explain that when I say "America", I mean all of America, the twenty-one republics of the continent. For me, and I think for you also, there should not be three Americas, for as is sometimes said, America is one, in its origin, in its fraternity, its present and its future.

For the press of any part of the world, freedom is a vital necessity; for the journalism of America it is also an unshakable tradition.

If America had not developed, as it has, twenty-one democratic republics, America would not have begun, to fulfill its missions, it would have defrauded the hope of men who came to America in search of liberty more than for material gains, and it would be only another continent rather than a New World.

If the press of America does not keep on defending and strengthening the tradition of liberty which it has, its pages will be nothing but printed sheets—they will never be the expression of that true journalism which America wants and needs. The republican organization of all our countries gave an unmistakable identity to our continent; the free press complements that characteristic. An Argentine newspaperman said more than thirty years ago, in speaking to a group of American writers: "Journalism is the most noble use for the intellect of a free people."

America's noble destiny was to make liberty flourish in a whole continent. To insure liberty evermore continues to be its principal duty. We must not think that because we enjoy liberty it is triumphant in all the world. We must not fool ourselves. In other parts of the world the same fight for liberty now goes on that went on in America a century ago. From the vantage point of our peace and liberty, let us remember the oppressed. The present tragedy of the world is the terrific clash between those who believe in liberty and those who believe in force. There will not be peace while there is not liberty. We Americans know well what we are talking about when we speak in this way.

As newspaper men of America, each one of us, as he finds it within his scope, ought to do his utmost to contribute to peace through liberty and to liberty within democracy. That is our duty.

Dr. Miró Quesada's remarks were as follows:

It is a great honor and a great pleasure for me to attend this luncheon offered by my newspaper colleagues of this beautiful city; the capital of this

great nation which we consider the eldest sister of the nations of this continent. I deeply appreciate the opportunity that you offer me to be in your pleasant company.

I am still deeply moved by the distinction conferred on Señor José Santos Gollán and myself by Columbia University by awarding us the Maria Moors Cabot prize. The severe dignity of university ceremonies are here on a par with the great progress made by the universities of this country. I believe there are many notable things in North America, but none in my opinion have the great value that its universities and its newspapers do, the importance and progress of which have no equal in the world.

I consider that the awarding of a prize in journalism by a University is the culmination of the tendency that has caused the universities to prepare journalists professionally, and of which the Graduate School of Journalism of Columbia University is a shining example.

This tendency is logical, because the University and the newspaper fulfill the same mission of education of men and citizens. Both teach and spread the idea that spiritual values govern life, and that nothing, not even progress or welfare, is to be recommended, if it fails to comply with ethical laws and forgets collective interest. Journalists and educators, in order to merit their titles, should be promoters of ideals and be ready to defend, even with sacrifice, their principles and the dignity of the work they fulfill. Both the educator and the journalist should never forget that they must carry out their noble mission in life and that it depends upon them to be or not to be worthy of this mission.

I do not wish to finish until I refer to the press conference which I had the good fortune to attend this morning. I believe that this custom existing in the United States, which I do not know of in any other country, is the most beautiful exponent of democracy of this admirable nation; it shows the great respect which the rulers of this country have for the dignity and the liberty of the press; and it constitutes the best method of honestly

using the press for the service of the high public interest of a nation. A nation, and especially a democracy, cannot exist and progress morally without the freedom of the press, which is the first of public liberties and which guarantees all the liberties which citizens must have. I believe that while North America has this noble system of great respect for the freedom and the dignity of the press, it will head the nations of the world; and I am convinced that it will never forsake its traditions of liberty.

Dean Ackerman said in part:

The American Republics today serve as the arena of public opinion for the whole world. Here the decisive battles of opinion are fought and won or lost without sacrificing human life or national honor. These battles are fought with words and ideas, with news and editorials as a public service, by men whose professional code has long ago outlawed the editor who had to depend upon a pistol to reinforce his pen.

These Cabot prizes are significant, not because they are inter-American or because they are in journalism or because they are awarded by an educational institution. Their real significance lies in the fact that they recognize what every journalist knows.

The pen is not only mightier than the sword but we shall never have world peace until the pen is universally substituted for the sword. If statesmen worked as hard as newspaper men to learn the truth, to tell the truth and to interpret the truth in written words which everyone could understand, the terms of peace relationships could be determined by pens rather than by arms.

It is the pen and not a pistol that statesmen use to *sign* peace treaties. Some day they will use pens only to draft the terms of peaceful relationships based upon changing social, economic and political situations. When that time comes, newspaper men like Dr. Miró Quesada and Señor Santos Gollán will be recognized publicly, as they are professionally, for their public services at home and abroad.

The University of Pennsylvania in Brazil

ARTHUR J. JONES

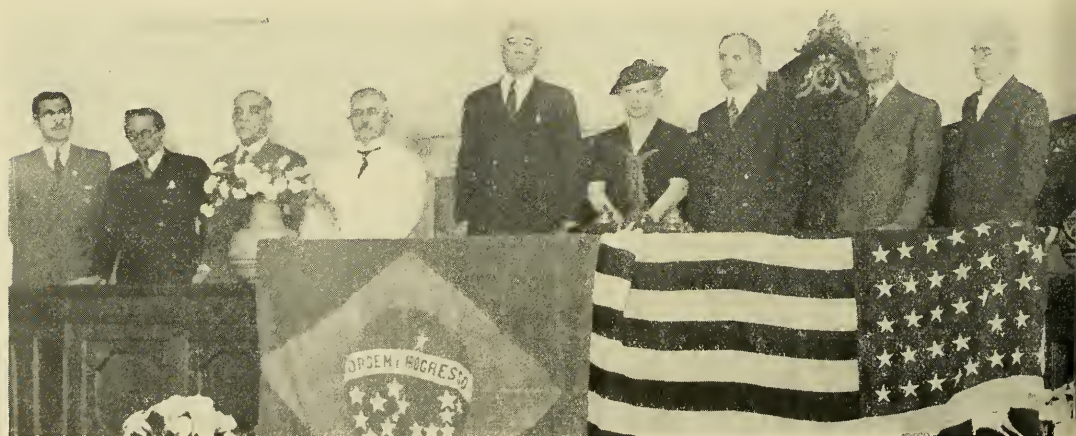
Professor of Secondary Education, University of Pennsylvania

DURING the past summer the University of Pennsylvania carried on an educational experiment that was interesting and, in many ways, unique. From the standpoint of its possible contribution to the development of closer relations between the United States and Brazil it may easily be of extreme importance and its effects far-reaching.

The name of the enterprise, the University of Pennsylvania Educational Field Courses in Brazil, is both cumbersome and somewhat misleading. It was not a cruise course, a travel course or even a field course. The group did not travel from place to place observing and studying natural phenomena or educational institutions, or social, political and economic conditions, although all of these were observed. No classes were held on the

ship either going to Brazil or on the return trip. It was, in effect, the transfer of a part of the regular summer school from the campus of the University of Pennsylvania to the University of Brazil in Rio de Janeiro. Regularly scheduled classes were held for a full six-week term and full graduate or undergraduate credits were given on satisfactory completion of this work. A group of 29 American students under the charge of two instructors from the University participated in the plan.

The writer was director in charge; Mrs. Leora James Sheridan, thoroughly familiar with the language and customs of Brazilians from a long residence in their country, was the other instructor. To her much of the credit for initiating and carrying through the experiment is due.



The cost of the trip was very small considering what was offered. Each student paid \$425.00 for the entire ten weeks. This included return fare, passport, head tax, tuition for one course, board and room. To this were added various incidentals, making the entire cost per student about \$500.00.

All students were required to enroll in at least one course. Seven registered for two courses and one for three courses. Three courses were given in the morning for American students and three for Brazilian students, of whom there were 33, in the late afternoon.

The following courses were offered for the American students: 1) *Principles of Secondary Education*, by Dr. Arthur J. Jones, 2) *Secondary Education in Brazil*, by Mrs. Leora James Sheridan, and 3) *Education in Latin America*, which was composed of a series of lectures by nationally known Brazilians. Among these were:

Dr. Antonio Carneiro Leão, professor of comparative education in the University of Brazil: *Education in Latin America*;

Dr. Arthur Ramos, professor of anthropology in the University of Brazil: *The Negro of Brazil*;

Dr. C. Delgado Carvalho, professor of geography in the University of Brazil: *The Geography of Brazil*;

Dr. Joaquim Faria Góes, assistant superintendent of schools, Rio de Janeiro: *Brazilian Secondary Schools*.

Others who gave one or more lectures in the course were:

Mrs. Kate de Pierri: *History of Latin America*

Dr. Bertha Lutz: *Science in Brazil*

Dr. Lourenço Filho, director of the Institute of Educational Research: *Elementary Education*.

The course was rich and very helpful to those who followed it.

For the Brazilian students the three courses were: 1) *Units of Learning*, by Mrs. Sheridan, 2) *Critical Problems of Secondary Education*, and 3) *Principles of Guidance*, by Dr. Jones. These classes were held regularly for the full session and seemed to meet the needs of the students attending.

All classes were conducted in English except *Units of Learning*, which was conducted in Portuguese by Mrs. Sheridan because of her facility in that language. Some of the special lecturers also spoke in Portuguese. For these Mrs. Sheridan acted as interpreter and translator.

The attendance was good in spite of many distractions and the work done was quite satisfactory; that of some students was outstanding.

In addition to the regular classes there



A RECEPTION TO THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS IN RIO

The University of Pennsylvania carried on successful education courses for American and Brazilian students in Rio last summer. In the central group appear from left to right: Dr. Arthur J. Jones, director of the group; Mrs. Leora Sheridan, instructor; Dr. Leão da Cunha, rector of the University of Brazil; Comandante Francisco Radler de Aquino, vice president of the Brazil-United States Institute; and Dr. H. C. Tucker, dean of the American colony.

were many special lectures and exhibits which added greatly to the value of the offerings. Among the lectures were:

Heloisa Alberta Torres, Director of the National Museum: *Anthropology*

Dr. Othon Leonardos: *Indians of Brazil*

Dr. Ildefonso de Abreu Albano, Director General of the Department of National Industries and Commerce: *Brazilian Industries*

Cacilda Martins: *Home Education in Brazil*

Dr. Roberto Simonson, professor in the University of São Paulo: *The Industrial Evolution of Brazil*

Dr. João Carlos Muniz, former consul general in Chicago and now in the Ministry of Foreign Relations: *The Natural Resources of Brazil* and *The Economic Evolution of Brazil*

Dr. Afranio Peixoto, professor in the University of Brazil: *Brazilian Literature*.

Many exhibits of an artistic, historical, economic, and industrial nature were arranged especially for the students. Two week-end excursions of three days each were given the entire group. One of these was to the city of São Paulo, the business center of Brazil, and the other to Bello Horizonte, the center of the mining industry. Other shorter excursions were also taken to points of interest in the city and to nearby places.

These excursions, special lectures and exhibits offered a most unusual opportunity to secure a knowledge of Brazil and its products and also to meet many prominent and influential men and women. Americans who had been in Brazil for a long time told us that in the few weeks of the Summer School our group had seen more of Brazil and had met more prominent Brazilians than they had in all the years of their residence.

Another distinctive feature of the enterprise was the arrangement for housing the American students. All were accommodated in Brazilian homes, where board and room were furnished at nominal rates. This plan was made possible because of the assistance of a committee of Brazilian

ladies. The purpose was to enable the students to come into intimate touch with Brazilian homes. In spite of many difficulties this plan was carried out successfully and the friendly relations thus established contributed greatly to the value of the enterprise as a whole.

Too much cannot be said regarding the assistance given by Brazilians and by American residents of Brazil. Indeed, a large part of the success of the undertaking can be traced directly to this cooperation.

The Brazilian government, especially through Dr. Oswaldo Aranha, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, and his associates, contributed greatly to the enterprise. Dr. Aranha was from the first an enthusiastic supporter of the project. Through his efforts the two weekend trips to São Paulo and Bello Horizonte were arranged and the expenses of the entire group for transportation and hotels were paid jointly by the Federal Government and the States of São Paulo and Minas Geraes. On these trips a Brazilian consul and two assistants accompanied us and made all arrangements. The Federal Government also provided hotel accommodations for the director and his wife for eight weeks.

Dr. Leitão da Cunha, the president of the University of Brazil, gave us office space and lecture rooms in the Faculdade de Filosofia in a central location and was helpful in many personal ways. Dr. Gastão Cruls, the librarian of the Biblioteca Central de Educação, was especially kind in lending books from this library for the use of our students. It would be impossible even to enumerate all the different people who contributed to the enterprise. Dr. Gustavo Capanema, the Minister of Education, and his associates, other government officials, business men, professors in the University, special lecturers, superintendents of city and state school systems, directors of special



Courtesy of Arthur J. Jones

BRAZILIAN AND AMERICAN STUDENTS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA COURSES GIVEN AT RIO ENJOYED THEIR TRIP TO BELLO HORIZONTE.

departments, principals of public and private schools and other nationally known men and women—all were eager to be of any assistance possible. The constant cooperation given by the American Ambassador, the Hon. Jefferson Caffrey, and the entire diplomatic and consular staff as well as by the members of the American colony should not go unnoted.

Brazilian helpfulness, which seemed to us to be quite out of proportion to the size of our group and the importance of its members, can no doubt be partly attributed to the traditional hospitality of the people. But the spirit of hospitality, always evident, is quite inadequate to explain the wealth of favors we received. The real explanation lies in the fundamental purpose of the enterprise—to promote a better, more sympathetic understanding between the people of the two countries and to contribute to a closer, more intimate relationship—and in the realization by Brazilians, high and low, that this was our purpose and in their recognition of its importance. The desire

for a closer relationship is evident everywhere in Brazil and anything that can promote it is gladly welcomed.

The entire project as planned and actually carried out was admirably adapted to this objective. The group as a whole was composed of serious-minded students, representative of the best in American life and culture. The enterprise was not political or economic or even primarily social; it was a regular summer school with lectures and scheduled classes, but held in Brazil. Our students met Brazilian students on an equal basis; they lived in Brazilian homes; they had a 'most unusual opportunity to come into close contact with Brazilian social, economic, industrial and educational life. They had an opportunity to see an amazing variety of natural scenery and many places of historic interest, considering the short time we were in Brazil. We lived among Brazilians, worked among them, met them in their homes and in social affairs and tried to know them better—to get some appreciation of their social,

economic and educational problems and the way they were attempting to solve them.

The results of the project were far beyond our expectations. From the standpoint of a summer school with courses and credits, it was a success. From the financial standpoint it was a success, for it was practically self-supporting. From the point of view of the fundamental purpose it was more than ordinarily successful. The eagerness with which prominent Brazilians look forward to a continuance of the enterprise is ample

evidence that they consider it a success. Plans are being made to change existing federal regulations so that Brazilian students taking such courses may receive credit in the University of Brazil. Everything seems favorable for a continuance of the plan and for its enlargement. The University of São Paulo is very desirous of having a branch established there. Conditions are ripe not only for a continuance of the summer school on an enlarged scale but for all sorts of academic interchange between the two countries.

Inter-American Cooperation in the Study of Public Administration

JOHN C. PATTERSON

Director of the School of Public Affairs, The American University

THE INCREASED PARTICIPATION of our city, state, and national government in the every day life of the people of the United States since the World War is well known. Because this participation may be expected to increase rather than to diminish in the future, the need for efficient public servants is a growing one. One result of the expansion is the interesting problem which has developed regarding public employees. The older bureaus and departments have been expanded, and many new agencies have been created as well. This rapid growth has brought into the government employ thousands of young men and women who lack experience in government affairs. The need for training these new government workers, as well as others who desire to enter the government service, was soon recognized. The

employee not only wanted to develop greater efficiency in his immediate work, but he also desired an opportunity to prepare himself for greater responsibilities. It was apparent that such opportunities could be provided in part by university courses covering both the specific problems and the broader aspects of administration in the different bureaus and agencies where the student was employed.

The American University, fortunately located as it is in the city of Washington, was in a position to cooperate with responsible men in our government who were giving serious consideration to these problems. In 1934, therefore, the University organized a School of Public Affairs to supplement the work of its Graduate School and to emphasize the study of the administrative aspects of government.

It was expected that, as the program developed, training along a number of technical lines would be included. The School of Public Affairs has worked in close cooperation with the Graduate School of the University, which specializes in the social sciences. In order to develop the broad program desired, the regular faculty of these two schools has been supplemented by bringing into the University a group of outstanding scholars and responsible administrators from the Government bureaus and agencies in Washington. These experts assist by giving regular courses in the University and by acting as special lecturers in classes and seminars. In this way they help to bring to the student first-hand knowledge of the processes of government.

During the years which have passed since the crystallization of these plans for the study of governmental problems, there has been a rapid growth in the School of Public Affairs. The early limited program, which contained but a small number of courses within a narrow range, has been expanded until it now consists of more than 160 courses covering a wide field. Among the subjects which are included in the present offerings and which illustrate the breadth of the opportunity for training in administration and the social sciences are: Technology and Modern Economic Problems, Comparative Control of Banking Systems, Labor Movements, National Land Problems and Policies, Tariff Policies, Federal Budgetary Administration, Population Prospects, and Census Statistical Methods.

Shortly after the initial steps were taken in the development of the School of Public Affairs, and while responsible men in our government were engaged in discussing the possibility of cooperation between the University and the Government, representatives of some of the Governments of

Latin America became interested in the project. They inquired if their government people might not also take advantage of the training which was to be offered in public administration. They wished to have some of their public employees secure the formal classroom training and participate in the discussion of the practical problems under the guidance of experienced government experts as well as of members of the regular faculty.

From these early conferences between the representatives of the Latin American States and the University authorities has come a plan of action which has been operating successfully for a period of three years. It is bringing to the University a group of young Latin American public employees whose objective is to learn as much of the theory of government and our methods of attacking the actual problems as possible. These Latin Americans ordinarily participate in the kind of class-room work which corresponds to their employment in their native land. The experience which permits men and women interested in government affairs to study methods and mingle with the employees of another nation who have the same interests is unquestionably good for all concerned.

In many cases, the broad general courses are the ones selected for the foreign students; but it may also be that an experienced Latin American administrator is prepared for advanced and more specialized work. Each Latin American student is trained as an individual, and every effort is made to give him the type of training which will be most valuable to him as an employee of his government. Careful planning of the program of the foreign student is essential. When young public administrators from all parts of the New World are gathered together in a common class-room and in an atmosphere of study, valuable results must be obtained.

Experience has shown that in most cases it is wise for the Latin American students to arrive in Washington from six weeks or two months before the opening of the academic year. This early arrival enables them to adjust themselves to life in the United States and provides a needed opportunity for them to preface their regular program of study by an intensive course in the English language for a period of several weeks. The early arrival of the student in Washington also gives the University authorities time to study his individual needs and outline his future

program. When the student has become accustomed to the routine of American college life, opportunities are sought for him to observe the work in the proper government offices. By that time he, having grown familiar with the language and the customs of our people, is ready to study the methods employed in the office which corresponds to that office of which he is an employee in his native land.

In order to facilitate the development of this plan for greater cooperation between the public administrators of all the Americas, the American University has



BRAZILIAN GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES IN THE UNITED STATES

Brazilian students in the School of Public Affairs of American University, accompanied by Dr. John C. Patterson, Director (right of center), recently called on the Director General of the Pan American Union (left of center).

granted a limited number of tuition scholarships. Since, however, the number of these scholarships is necessarily small, the governments concerned have themselves generally undertaken to finance the stay of the young people whom they have named to come here to study while they are in the United States. The method employed by the Government of Brazil, for example, is to grant a leave of absence for one year, and perhaps later for a second year, to the employee and to continue his salary while he is studying abroad. In cases where the salary is thought to be inadequate to maintain the student comfortably in Washington, it has been supplemented by other funds. Such a course permits the enjoyment of study here by a highly selected group of young men and women who otherwise might be deprived of the experience because of a lack of financial resources, and the interest shown by the Latin American governments has helped to bring to the University a very fine type of young government employee from the other American Republics.

During the past three years, students from Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Honduras, Mexico, and Panama have been engaged in study in the University. Their interests are as widely separated as Admiralty Law and Forestry Administration. However, the greatest number of them are interested in Public Administration. It is also true that most of the students of Public Administration have come from Brazil, and today ten men and women from that Republic are registered in the School of Public Affairs. They are employees of

the Brazilian Civil Service and in general they are interested in the organization and administration of that agency. A typical program of one of these Brazilian students would include such courses as Backgrounds of Public and Business Administration, Contemporary Economic Thought, and Problems of Personnel Administration. In the case of a young man or woman who is studying for the government service, but who is not yet employed, a typical program may be found in that of a young man from Panama. It includes Principles of Public Administration, Government Control of Economic Life, Problems of Organization, Management and Supervision, and a course in Speech. Other students' programs include work in Transportation Problems, Management of Business Units in Government, Government Correspondence, and Psychology of Human Relations in Administration.

In conclusion it may be appropriately pointed out that the University is greatly indebted to numerous men and women in our own government for their cooperation in making this plan operate smoothly. The foreign student is welcomed not only by the faculty of the University and its students, but by the officials of our government as well. All have shown their interest in assisting the student to work out this planned program. The University is indebted further to one of the great foundations in the United States for financial support which enables it to provide the proper counseling and guidance for the Latin American students, the necessary English instructors, and other services.

The Mexican Calendar Stone

E. E. VALENTINI

THE ORIGIN of the American Indian is shrouded in impenetrable mystery. How long man has lived on the American continent is unknown. It would appear that he is of remote Asiatic origin and that over a period of thousands of years he had remained separated from his parent stock. Certain it is that up to the time of the discovery of America in 1492 his existence had been no more suspected by Europe than had that of the American continent itself.

It is with the utmost difficulty that we are able to piece together through the medium of written history, tradition, and legend some knowledge of the Mexican Indian, as only one of many examples of aboriginal man between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. However, it would not be too daring to sum up all of Mexican history in the following manner:

Indian Mexico: Mayas and Toltecs, 231–1063 A. D.

Indian Mexico: Chichimecas (including Mexicans or Aztecs), 1063–1521 A. D.

Spanish Mexico: Colonial and modern, 1521—A. D.

Like those of all peoples, the early epochs of the Mayas and Toltecs are full of uncertainties. No authentic record exists from which we may gather a full account of what occurred during the eight centuries between the IIIrd and the XIth and thereby gain an approximate idea of the political and social conditions then existing on the table-lands of Mexico. Tradition, and a very slender one at best, has kept alive the memory of these two peoples, to

whose civilizing energy has been ascribed the clearing of the virgin forests in order to make way for cities, palaces and temples. Here and there linguistics, geography and archaeology have helped us to secure important hints, which have been fading from the musty canvas of traditional lore. It is by no means my intention to write the pages of a history of eight centuries which has been irretrievably lost or to make a bold attempt to reconstruct it on the tottering pedestal of fragmentary evidence.

The Indian undoubtedly existed in Mexico long before the IIIrd century, but it appears that in the middle of that century a great wave of civilization, introduced by foreigners, perhaps of a different race, swept over the country and as one of its results brought about the creation of the great work of art which I shall attempt to describe.

Let us consider the country that we now call Mexico as very sparsely inhabited at that time, with no settlements at all in the Central Valley and with the City of Mexico as yet undreamed of. Let us further consider the Gulf coast and the peninsula of Yucatan as inhabited by savages of unknown origin and attainments. Apparently a group of strangers suddenly arrived in canoes at or near where the seaport of Tampico now lies. Whether these were Indians of a high degree of intelligence who had found their way down the mighty Mississippi and worked their way along the shore, or whether they were Celtic or British, continental Europeans or North Africans, is almost an idle speculation. The waves of the Gulf have obliterated all marks of their keels and unless

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CALENDARIO AZTECA O PIEDRA DEL SOL.

EN EL MES DE DICIEMBRE DEL AÑO DE 1790
AL PRACTICARSE LA NIVELACION PARA EL NUEVO
EMPEDRADO DE LA PLAZA MAYOR DE ESTA CAPITAL
FUE DESCUBIERTO ESTE MONOLITO Y COLOCADO
DESPUES AL PIE DE LA TORRE OCCIDENTAL DE LA
CATEDRAL POR EL LADO QUE VE AL PONIENTE
SE LLEVO LUCHAR DE TRASLADO A ESTE MUSEO
NACIONAL EN AGOSTO DE 1900.

THE MEXICAN CALENDAR STONE

This work of art, now in the National Museum at Mexico City, was carved in the latter part of the fifteenth century to serve as a sacrificial stone. The decorative motif is the Mexican concept of the division of time. The complete stone, part of whose rough edge is not seen in the illustration, weighs some 54,000 pounds. It is made of a single block of basaltic porphyry.

science can shed some light on this mystery it is useless to employ our imaginations further.

Tradition has it that these strangers were highly cultured people, a very small number of whom would have sufficed to bring about a radical change in the habits of life of the aborigines. Tradition further has it that the leaders of this expedition aban-

doned the main body and proceeded southward along the coast, "carrying with them their sacred books." To this act may be attributed the high degree of civilization achieved by those people to whom the collective name "Maya" has been given, although it is doubtful that that is what they called themselves in their own language; we know that the word was first



Courtesy of E. E. Valentini

DIAGRAM OF THE MEXICAN CALENDAR STONE

This diagram of the Calendar Stone may be colored to bring out the various elements of the design, according to instructions beginning on page 717.

recorded by Columbus, this bold navigator having picked it up on the coast of Honduras on his fourth voyage.

The main body apparently remained for some time near Tampico, painfully "reconstructed their sacred books," calendar and other records, and eventually traveled to the interior of Mexico, "keeping the snow-covered mountains always in sight," and with the assistance of resident natives built both the Pyramid of Cholula and the pyramids of San Juan Teotihuacán. Gathering a large group of tribes about them, they then proceeded northward and probably arrived at the forbidding deserts of Chihuahua before settling down.

Here, owing to internal dissensions, a group of these settlers, completely modified by association with intermediary tribes, later turned back, and after a long odyssey settled at Tula in the present State of Hidalgo,—which gave rise to the name of Toltec, a word composed of *tollin* (reed) and *tecatl* (person or citizen or native of). This would appear to have occurred in about the year 648 A. D. The components of the original northward-migrating expedition undoubtedly mostly spoke what today we call the Maya language. However, they probably came into contact with Indians in northern Mexico who spoke the Nahua language, which occurs in large sections as far north as Canada. The returning immigrants, upon their arrival at Tula, may be considered as the undisputed importers of the Nahua language, which apparently was unknown in Mexico before that time and which is still spoken in that country.

By the XIth century, after having arrived at a considerable degree of civilization, the Toltecs were weakened by famine, pestilence and insurrection, and were eventually overthrown by the Chichimecas, a bolder people who appeared from the north. The word *Chichimeca* is a collo-

quialism, not a name, and in its original connotation meant *uncouth* or *savage people*, and like most Indian names was a descriptive appellation rather than a national title. By the year 1063 A. D. the Toltecs had almost entirely disappeared and were followed by successive waves of immigration from the north.

Some of these Nahua-speaking migrants eventually displaced the original Maya population of Tlaxcala, giving to that region its name, which means *land of bread*. Others, somewhat farther north, drove a corridor through the mountains of Puebla and down to the coast, dividing the Mayas into northern and southern sections. These were the Totonacas, with whom Cortés first came into contact upon his arrival where the city of Vera Cruz now stands. Others, known as the Tlahuicas, crossed the mountains beyond the valley and founded Cuauhnáhuac (*Near to the Forest*), known to all tourists as Cuernavaca. Still others founded Xochimilco (*The Field of Flowers*). Another group settled at Culhuacán on the shores of Lake Texcoco and later founded the great city of Texcoco on the far side of that body of water. The Tepanecas founded Atzacapozalco.

Those settled around the lake did not displace an aboriginal people but entered upon lands which were open to settlement and cultivation. They lived in relative peace with one another and their Maya neighbors and did not engage in the bloody sacrifices for which they later became famous. This more or less peaceful people eked out an existence for some two hundred years. Then there appeared upon the scene the final line of Nahua immigration, a fierce and bloody-minded group of warriors, tainted with both savagery and genius, who entered central Mexico from some remote and mythical northern land called by them *Aztlán*, from which they derived the name of Aztecs.

It is with this last group that we have to deal. Their career is almost unparalleled in history. From vagabondage to enslavement; from liberation to exile; from settlement and civilization to confederation, empire, and overthrow by a foreign power as fanatical as themselves is the record of less than two hundred years.

The Aztecs wandered into the Valley of Mexico many years after the arrival of the last preceding tribe. They brought with them the worship of Huitzilopochtli, God of War, with its bloody sacrifices, so eloquently described by modern writers, but this did not succeed in entirely displacing that of Tlaloc, the beneficent God of Rain. They were enslaved by a petty king but as a result of their unexampled barbarism and cruelty in a small inter-tribal war were exiled and once more took up their wanderings. Within a very short time their long journey from the north was ended by their arrival at the shores of Lake Texcoco, where they saw an eagle perched on a cactus holding a snake in its claws. This they took as a sign that they had arrived at their final destination. Its symbolic representation is the Mexican national emblem today. On a small island a short distance from the western shoreline, to which they later built causeways, they founded, in about the year 1325 A. D., their settlement of Tenochtitlán, or Mexico-Tenochtitlán, on the ruins of which Mexico City was later constructed.

It will be noted that the name of a city has been given to an entire country. This is misleading in a way as the Aztecs were the only "Mexicans" in the country now known as Mexico, which still contains many diverse peoples who still speak more than fifty different Indian languages; less than a century ago 120 live languages were known to exist there, while 62 in addition were recorded as having passed out of existence.

In their early days the struggling Aztec settlers were fearfully oppressed by the Tepanecas of Atzacapozalco but the former soon effected a confederation with the highly cultured Texcocans, who lived on the eastern shore of the lake, and returned the compliment by soundly whipping the Tepanecas and doing to them what they had tried to do to Mexico,—which was, literally and in quite the modern manner, to place them on their tax rolls. This taste of victory, combined with rapid growth and military capacity, helped to shape Aztec national policy, which became that of conquest and the exaction of tribute from neighboring towns and tribes, and within a relatively short term of years Mexico-Tenochtitlán had placed under subjection more than three-fourths of the entire Mexico of today. The Aztecs' expeditionary forces went as far as southern Yucatan, where the Maya civilization had by that time become very highly developed, and also threaded their way through Central America, even establishing a colony on the east coast of Costa Rica.

One of the most remarkable achievements of these people was the development of a minor dialect of the Nahua tongue into a highly polished and dominant language and its employment as a civilizing factor among the conquered peoples. The Aztec or Mexican language is not as well known as it should be, and as it is still in use it deserves much wider study than has been given to it.

A scant half century after the foundation of the settlement, the first king of Mexico ascended the throne, in 1375 A. D. We are concerned with one of his successors, Axayacatl, who about the year 1478, as we reckon time, was reminded by the high priest of a vow he had once made, "to decorate the great *teocalli* (pyramid) Tenochtitlán, then nearing completion, with a great work of art in which Hui-

tzilopochtli could take pleasure." Axayacatl therefore ordered the quarrying and carving of a new sacrificial stone to replace one which had been made by his father. We read in the works of the Indian historian, Tezozómoc, that the stone was sculptured and placed in position on top of the great pyramid, that it was sunk into the surface of an altar, and that a trough to receive the blood of the victims was placed in front of it. Then follows an account of a bloody festival held for the dedication of the sacrificial slab, and a statement that upon it thousands of victims were slain. "The king, as chief sacrificer, on the first day killed a hundred victims with his own hand, drank of their blood, and ate of their flesh; and so arduous was his labor, and so much did he eat, that he became sick, and soon after died."

Without doubt this stone served for all the bloody sacrifices of the Aztecs up to 1521, over forty years. In this year the Spaniards captured the city and Cortés ordered the entire pyramid to be destroyed and the canals of the city filled with its fragments. The conquerors however did not destroy the stone—perhaps on account of its great size and weight—but placed it on exhibition in the market place, once partly covered by the pyramid. It is recorded that Bishop Montúfar ordered the stone buried in the place where it stood so that evidence of the infamous acts perpetrated upon it might be erased from sight and memory. This was effectively the case, for neither the conquerors nor any of the many writers on Mexican antiquities made the least mention of it up to the year 1790. It had been completely forgotten in the vicissitudes of colonial reconstruction and administration. In that year the stone was rediscovered while improvements to the pavement of the Plaza were under way. The clergy, recognizing

its origin and the supposedly heathenish characters engraved upon it, wished to have it buried again, but the enlightened Viceroy Revillagigedo ordered it to be exposed and caused it to be built into the western side of the Cathedral at the foot of one of its towers so that all could see it. There it remained until 1885, when it was removed to the National Museum, where it now stands.

No one in 1790 had the least idea that such a stone had ever existed or for what purpose it might have served. The task of interpreting it was essayed by a professor of astronomy and mathematics without success. His and succeeding attempts to fathom its meaning were fruitless until the work was undertaken by Dr. Philip J. J. Valentini, an American archaeologist and historian, who published in 1878 an analytical monograph on the subject, and a drawing of which the diagram on page 714 is a reproduction.

The present writer is the posthumous collaborator of Dr. Valentini and this preamble and the following very condensed description of the sacrificial stone, which is now known as the Aztec or Mexican Calendar Stone, are an epitome of their joint findings to date.

If you will remove the diagram from these pages and lay it alongside you as you read, with three colored pencils, red, yellow and blue, and use the pencils as I shall indicate, we will not find "books in the running brooks" but we may find "sermons in stones" and "good in everything."

The disc is carved on the face of an irregular, broken block of basaltic porphyry, this remaining fragment weighing $24\frac{1}{2}$ metric tons, or some 54,000 pounds. The circle is 11 feet 7 inches in diameter and has a relief of 8 inches from the block. The figures are carved $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to 2 inches deep. There is considerable deface-

ment, making diagrammatic reconstruction necessary.

The artist has chosen as his decorative motif the ancient Mexican concept of the *division of time*, a theme of basic importance to humanity. The disc also gives a succinct history of his and pre-Mexican people and is a historical record of prime importance. The figures are pictorial in character, for the most part representing natural objects in symbolic form; they are not phonetic, and cannot be read by sound; the Mexicans had no written alphabet.

The ancient Mexican system of reckoning time was the following, with the exception that it referred to a period of 13 years as a *tlapilli*, or quarter cycle, as we sometimes call 25 years a quarter century. All the divisions of time except the *tlapilli* will be found represented on the Stone:

16 parts (names, if any, unknown)	1 day
20 days, each bearing its own name (not numbered as in our system), or four weeks of five days each	1 month
18 months, of 20 days each	360 days
Plus five "nameless or unfortunate days," known as <i>nemotemi</i>	5 days
	<hr/> 365 days 1 year

Also:

1 moon-reckoning, <i>metztli</i> pohualli	260 days
1 sun-reckoning, <i>tonalpohualli</i>	105 days
	<hr/> 365 days 1 year
52 years	1 cycle
4000-6000 years (approximately)	1 era or epoch

The year was a solar year of 365 days, without the correcting fraction and leap year. Attempts have been made to relate the solar Aztec year with our astronomically correct year of 365¼ days. There is no evidence to warrant this. The modern European science of astronomy dates from the findings of Copernicus, who was five years old at the time the Stone was carved.

The design is composed of a central

shield or disc surrounded by six bands or zones, of varying width.

The four *large pointers* (color these yellow) represent the division of the day into four parts, sunrise, noon, sunset and midnight. The four *smaller pointers* (color yellow) represent further division of the day, into eight parts. The *small towers* between the pointers represent still further division of the day, into sixteen parts.

The central shield (color red) represents Tonatiuh, the Sun God. The central hieroglyph on the forehead is *atl* (water), over which is seen an arc with four dots, establishing the Sun God as the destroyer of the universe by means of a great flood. This is a hieroglyphic prefix, making his name *Atonatiuh*, or Water-Sun-God. It is flanked by two large jewels. The pendant from the lip is commonly mistaken for a protruding tongue; this is a *tentell* (literally *lip-stone*), an ornament of high rank, studded with jewels and buttoned to the lower lip through a hole. The majestic emaciation of the face represents extreme old age.

The four large *tablets* with loops and accompanying small hieroglyphs in the next zone represent the four great eras or epochs of Mexican chronology, culminating in successive destructions and recreations of the universe by the Sun God. The first destruction was by war (*tiger*, upper right tablet; color yellow); the second was by hurricane (hieroglyph *ehecatli*, wind, upper left tablet; color yellow); the third was by rain (hieroglyph *quiahuitl*, rain, lower left tablet; color yellow); the fourth was by flood (amplified symbols of *atl*, water, lower right tablet; color yellow). These periods of creation or eras lasted 4000-6000 years each. By Aztec time-reckoning the universe is now in the fifth period of life. (Color loops between tablets yellow also. Their full significance has not yet been determined.)

This zone also contains the triangular *diadem* of the Sun God (upper center, color red), the hieratical number 4, represented by the four *circles* alongside the tablet loops (color yellow), and a somewhat smaller *circle* (lower center, color yellow), the meaning of which remains obscure. It likewise contains (lower center) a section of two other zones, to be mentioned later, two small *quadrangles* containing five dots each (color red) and five corn-shaped *glyphs* representing the five *nemotemi* or "nameless days" (color blue).

The narrow band surrounding the preceding zone contains hieroglyphic representations of the 20 days of the month. Each has its name (not number). They are read from the upper center toward the left, counter-clockwise (color blue).

The zone of *quadrangles* surrounding that of the days represents (with room for those covered by the feet of the pointers) the 260 days of the *metztli-pohualli*, or moon-reckoning, the major division of the year. (The original calendar had 260 days only.) Each of the *dots* represents one day. The groups of five dots each represent weeks of five days, a minor consideration in Mexican chronology, the month being the important subdivision (color red).

The narrow band of *glyphs* surrounding the zone of the quadrangles represents the 100 days of the *tonalpohualli* or sun-reckoning, the second most important part of the year (color blue).

For many years the Mexican calendar contained 360 days only. Later calculation caused the addition of 5 days more, the *nemotemi*, which are shown in the zone of the eras.

The next band—a broad one—is the zone of the Rain God, *Tlaloc*, worshiped in the Valley of Mexico before the arrival of the Aztecs and incorporated by them into their mythology. The fourteen visible

identical symbols represent heavy clouds bearing the hieroglyph *atl*, water, pouring heavy raindrops upon the earth, which is represented by the symbol *milli*, cultivated field, furrows with a seed corn lying in the center (color red, avoiding other symbols carefully).

The outer zone is composed of a series of 24 identical symbols, each representing the relighting of the sacred fire, a great religious ceremony which took place every 52 years to appease the Sun God and to prevent the destruction of the world by him (color blue; note parts under the terminal plumes of *helmets*, to be described later). These symbols, by the two triangular pointers (color yellow), are brought into relationship with the central upper *crown tablet* (color red), the hieroglyph *13 Acatl*, a year-date reducible to our year 1479 A. D. This was the year of the dedication of the Stone.

The sacred fire having been relit 24 times by the year 1479 A. D. and each relighting representing 52 years, a total of 1248 years, by deducting 1248 from 1479 it is deduced that the Mexicans had knowledge of their tribal or cultural existence at least as far back as the year 231 A. D. This zone on the one hand establishes a historical date and on the other confirms one long held in doubt. All deductions based on history and legend have contributed to the conclusion that Mexican civilization commenced in the middle of our third century. The Stone definitely establishes the date as 231 A. D.

The eight *scrolls* with *knots* (color yellow), four on each side of the zone, are hieroglyphic synonyms, each also representing 52 years, a total of 416 years. In English we say, "A century has elapsed." The Mexicans said, "We bind the years together." Their unit was a *cycle* of 52 years, not a *century* of 100 years. The eight scrolls and knots represent the 416 years

of Chichimecán ascendancy in the Valley of Mexico following the final overthrow of the so-called Toltec empire, which event is generally set down in the chronicles as having occurred in the year 1063 A. D., a date which is confirmed by the Stone; 1479 minus 416=1063.

The two symbols of the sacrificial fire separated from their companion symbols by the scrolls and knots apparently represent the latter, or Aztec, phase of Chichimecan domination, confirming the year 1375 A. D. (1479 minus 104) as that of the occupation of the throne of Mexico by the first Aztec king, Acampichtli.

The two opposing *faces* in the lower center of the disc probably represent the dedication of the Stone by the king Axayacatl, on the right, and the high priest, Zihuacoatl Tlacaoeltzin, who reminded the king of his vow, on the left. (I borrow another pencil and color these faces brown.) Note the circular earrings (color blue). Note the royal *tassel* on the forehead of the king and also in the earring (color both red), lacking from the head on the left. Note the symbol for *song* issuing from the mouths, large divided flakes. "And their voices were joined in hymns of praise." The *helmets*, or priest masks, enclosing the faces, with terminal feathers impinging upon the zone of the sacrificial fires, are to be colored yellow. The seven bell-like ornaments around each helmet and the serpent-like ornaments on the

helmets at the top of each head are to be colored blue.

Having covered the entire field of ancient Mexican chronology on the Stone and having besides offered data of historical importance, it only remains for me to mention the parts left uncolored on our illustration. The bead-like ornamental outer edge of the disc is of unknown significance. I color it red. The two short, broad bands from the pointers at the crown date-tablet, curving into the zone of Tlaloc, would seem to intend that Mexican history, with its bloody religion of worship of the Sun God and the God of War, should be brought into relationship with that of the life-giving Rain God. I color these bands blue.

In closing, I cannot but regret that space forbids a more detailed account and yet, I cannot refrain from invoking a word of praise in honor of a forgotten man, the artist who carved this great work, with copper chisels and wooden mallet, steel and hammer being ideas unborn in his mind. Regardless of the heinous purpose to which the product of his craftsmanship was to be dedicated, may this benighted savage, whose singlehearted sincerity can not be doubted, rest in peace in the *Mictlán* of his forefathers, the Place of Repose, which in the theology of his race metes out no punishment, but only reward, for work well done on earth.

Women of America

II. Juana Manso de Noronha, Argentine

1819-75

MANON V. GUAGLIANONE

SARMIENTO, the great Argentine educator, had a favorite disciple who was at the same time a most able, intelligent, and learned collaborator in his educational work. Her name was Juana Manso. Up to the present time Juana Manso has not been given the credit she deserves; her work has not been evaluated or its significance weighed with precision. For this educator was a woman exceptional in her time—exceptional for her cultivation of mind, which was uncommon among women of the past century; for her fine spirit; for her modern ideology; and for her rare temperament, which combined in singular fashion an almost virile audacity and energy with a delicate feminine sensitiveness. She was a woman of masculine gestures, short hair, and simple clothes without lace or adornments, a woman who gave lectures, who filled public offices, who scandalized all Buenos Aires of seventy years ago. She was pitilessly ridiculed but even today her life offers an example of a woman and an educator who struggled amidst insults, incomprehension, and calumny, who never knew the stimulus or satisfaction of success, but who yet, holding dear her ideal and convinced of its truth, continued her work to the end, never halting before the poverty of moral outlook which hampered her work.

Juana Manso was born in Buenos Aires

See the October 1939 issue of the BULLETIN for the first biography in this series: "Policarpa Salavarrieta, Colombian."

on June 26, 1819. In her childhood this intelligent and lively girl received a somewhat precarious education, like that of all children of her time. But the dangers of that poor education were averted through her insatiable thirst for reading and the careful direction of her father.

In the year 1841 Juana Manso began her teaching in Montevideo, where her family had sought refuge upon fleeing from the tyranny of Rosas. She opened there a small school which brought into concrete form aspirations she had long cherished. The daily papers of that epoch announced the opening of the school, giving its location and the pedagogical ideas of its principal. A reading of these announcements reveals that Juana Manso was then at the beginning of her development as a teacher and still without any modern educational orientation or any broad pedagogical knowledge. She possessed only a profound vocation, a warm enthusiasm, and a firm will. She lacked wide reading and experience.

Her school in Montevideo was similar in course of study and methods to others of the same era, but completely different from those which she outlined later upon her return to Buenos Aires. Notwithstanding all her earnest determination, this attempt did not succeed and the *Anales de Educación Uruguaya* do not even mention the school which she directed.

Juana Manso left Montevideo sadly impressed by the reserve of that society



Courtesy of the author

JUANA MANSO DE NORONHA

which had closed its doors to her. She went to live in Rio de Janeiro, where she married the violinist Noronha, with whom she then journeyed to the United States. There for the first time she came into contact with modern education and with Horace Mann, the most conspicuous figure of that educational movement. She found an interesting field of educational experimentation, where the most novel plans were being tried. With keen curiosity she observed, investigated, and informed herself on everything and upon returning to Argentina in 1854, she possessed a clear and definite orientation in the theory of education and a great fund of interesting ideas which she had gathered in the United States.

If she had rebelled against the educational situation in her country in her adolescent years, when she was following only the dictates of her own thought, her

opposition was much greater now that she had become acquainted with education in the United States. The contrast was painful. Her country had not prospered in the things in which she was interested. Tyranny and civil war had obstructed the development of popular culture, which had been fostered years before by Rivadavia. Public schools were being closed because the treasury could not support them. In the budgets of the time public instruction very rarely received an appropriation. To the scarcity of schools were added poor methods, routine procedure, and the incapacity of teachers, all of whom were untrained for teaching. A perusal of the reports of members of the Primary Instruction Board of that period shows us that the established practices were positively medieval. Juana Manso said: "It would be quite the same if our schools, such of them as exist, did not exist at all, because, far from teaching anything, they pervert the child, brutalize his spirit, and weaken his body. This is no paradox but a most painful reality."

Such was the environment and state of things that Juana Manso found upon returning to her country. The effect upon her was tremendous. Incapable of simply folding her hands and doing nothing, conscious of the great work which there was to be done, she took up the task immediately with all the fervor and enthusiasm which filled her soul.

But where to begin? Everything had to be reorganized. With regard to methods, systems, plans, it was possible to do this. But popular consciousness—how could it be shaped, how interested in that new problem, of whose importance it was unaware? A clear and authoritative voice was needed to arouse public opinion. She, who had gone away from her country while still a young girl, had upon her return no position, no prestige on which

she could count. How could this difficulty be surmounted? Dr. Juan P. Ramos said in his work *Historia de la Instrucción Primaria*: "Our crowds were to be swayed not by conviction but by enthusiasm." Enthusiasm was the very epitome of the word and work of Juana Manso and her course of action was predicated upon this effect.

She set to work in earnest at once. She was tenacious and firm in the struggle, she fought from the rostrum, through the press, and through books, at the cost of her own well-being, the tranquility of her family, and the integrity of her name. The appearance of Juana Manso and the dissemination of her educational ideas caused a great scandal in Buenos Aires. The city was accustomed to routine teachers who never departed from traditional patterns. Therefore this educator, who cast old precepts aside, who tore the mask of beauty from many traditions, was fought with fury from the time she began her work.

It was necessary to begin by molding the moral conscience of the country. Neither the government nor the people were ignorant of this fact. But to attain this end, a mistaken way was followed. The number of ecclesiastical seminaries and churches was increased because, according to the understanding of the government, the ethical teaching of the people devolved upon them. Confronted with this tendency, Juana Manso held that the only legitimate method of raising moral standards was through popular education. If the people are not educated, she said, they "will always be a brute force whose energies will be at the command of any leader wishing to give them arms." To end barbarism it was necessary to reveal to the people the beauty of high and noble ideals and to renovate their ideas. Sarmiento spread a modern concept when he recalled

the wise words of Lord Brougham: "Let the soldier be abroad if he will. He can do nothing in this age. There is another personage, a personage less imposing in the eyes of some, perhaps insignificant. The schoolmaster is abroad, and I trust to him, armed with his primer, against the soldier in full military array." Organization, indeed, would not come with violence, with arms, with blood; it would come with peace, with concord, with harmony, with education. It was useless to give the people laws, suffrage, rights, without shaping their personalities, without educating them. It was necessary to teach men to be citizens, to defend their country, to honor it, to make it great; to teach them to dream, to forge ideals, to elevate themselves day by day, to excel in their efforts, in their work, and in healthy ambitions. As Sarmiento said: "Individuals, the people, the nation, the future—all these are on the humble benches of the school." A noble truth, this saying of the master! Education rather than mere instruction was lacking for that nation which only a few years before had gained its liberty and which was beginning to live alone, to be the ruler of its own destiny.

The words of Juana Manso and of Sarmiento were heard with marked suspicion because they had been inspired by North America. It was observed that to introduce practices of the United States into the country would be to "Yankee-ize" it, thereby endangering its own individuality, and that it was a mistake to implant Anglo-Saxon institutions among a people of Latin origin.

This incomprehension did not discourage Juana Manso. She continued her labors indefatigably. With recognition of the pressing need of educating the people, the problem was how to do it at once. How, in what form, by what methods? Juana Manso admitted that it is not only

the school that educates the people, but that other factors as well, such as the press and popular associations, play their part. She appreciated the value of social education and bore witness to her belief in its power by founding libraries and giving lectures, but she still claimed first place for the school. The press of the time was not sufficiently calm and unruffled to elicit confidence in the seriousness of its word and it therefore could not be given charge of the intellectual instruction of the masses. On the other hand, associations made up of heterogeneous elements lacked unity of action and of thought. Education of the people could not be accomplished in divers ways; it could be attained only through the common school.

For twenty years Juana Manso worked tirelessly to achieve passage of the common education law. She did not succeed, for the law was not promulgated until nine years after her death. But it should be remembered that she was the woman who fought with the greatest tenacity to prepare the way and to predispose public opinion in its favor.

Juana Manso demanded the right of common education: education for all, paid for by all, was her definition; education for all the people, meaning by the word "people" not a part of society, chosen because of family antecedents or fortune, but rather all the inhabitants of the country—education for all without distinction of class or origin.

In 1859 Sarmiento made a bold experiment: coeducation. Suspecting that it was going to provoke a violent reaction, he entrusted the direction of the school to our educator, who was capable, he knew, of meeting all opposition. He and Juana Manso, both of them possessed of a modern spirit, understood the advantages of this system. They had seen and appreciated its results in Europe and the United States,

but to speak of coeducation in their own country in those years was indeed a risky business. How could it be otherwise when even today there are those among us who fight against coeducation?

The decree appointing Juana Manso principal of Coeducational Primary School No. 1 was dated April 7, 1859. How did Juana Manso plan her work in that school? Let us see what she herself said: "To mold character, correct bad habits, remove from the heart of the child the first shadows of waywardness—that was our endeavor at School No. 1." In spite of this determined and well-planned work, however, serious obstacles growing out of misunderstanding constantly troubled the great educator and finally caused her resignation.

Upon abandoning the principalship of the coeducational school, Juana Manso did not sever her connection with the educational movement of her country. With no flagging, but rather with renewed vigor, she continued her struggle. In 1865 she was named editor of *Anales*, an educational publication founded by Sarmiento in 1858. Under her direction the review reappeared with a complete fund of educational information and with translations of interesting articles by Horace Mann, Calkins, Lalor, etc. The *Anales* also outlined Juana Manso's general ideas and concepts of public education. It was her new lecture platform, although it was not her only one.

In those years she began to give lectures. This system of cultural divulgation, so general among us today, was initiated in our country by Juana Manso. In 1866 she began her public lectures with the story of the journeys made by Sarmiento in 1847. At the end of the same year she gave an address in Quilmes on the subject: "The school is the secret of prosperity for young nations."

Following a suggestion of Sarmiento, Juana Manso planned the founding of pub-

lic libraries for the purpose of extending popular culture. She sought to establish one in San José de Flores but her endeavor met with no response there. She thought then of setting up a library in Chivilcoy, where her efforts were so successful that within a few days she had collected 270 volumes.

In 1869 she was appointed a member of the Primary Instruction Board, an office which monopolized all her activity. As a result of a tour of inspection, which gave her an opportunity to verify the existence of disastrous conditions in the schools, she asked authorization to initiate practical courses for teachers for the purpose of informing them in educational matters. Her suggestion was approved and the meetings began immediately, not under the modest name which she had asked but with the pompous title, "Conferences for Teachers." These meetings were started in 1870 and through this medium our educator gave to the teachers a broad course of pedagogical instruction.

Since it was Juana Manso's purpose that these meetings should be not mere lectures but work in which all would collaborate, she gave to the attending teachers questionnaires to be filled out, referring to topics which had already been discussed. It was then that the rebellion began. She saw that the teachers wished neither to work nor to study. A reading of the simple questionnaire which provoked the resistance is enough to verify the fact that in not answering it the teachers were actuated by a spirit of hostility toward their chairman, who at that time was no longer a member of the Primary Instruction Board.

Juana Manso did not lose her calm. Incomprehension did not surprise her. In *Anales* she published an article explaining the nature of the conflict, in which she said: "We are extravagant because we ask for ventilation and a recreation period

every half an hour, of at least ten minutes. We are Utopians because we do not accept the routine school with its empirical methods or the human mind as a sort of ostrich's craw where the Catechism, grammar and arithmetic go round and round like the sacrificial victims in the pool at Jerusalem."

This episode ended the "Conferences for Teachers" because in reality the trend was counter to the modern ideas that Juana Manso represented. She was despised because she preached a new gospel and new concept but, long immune to all kinds of calumny and persecution, she tranquilly and serenely continued her teaching.

It was Juana Manso who laid the foundation for modern pedagogy. She advocated integral education, insisting upon the necessity of giving attention not only to intellectual and moral development but to physical development as well; she fought against learning by rote, recommending instead deduction based on careful observation of nature; she praised methods founded on reason, on the training of judgment, planned not to fill the child's mind but to form it. She favored play, pointing out its advantages in education, and she spoke also in favor of the establishment of kindergartens. She pleaded for the idea that the child should be the active element in the class; she fought with determination to the end that teachers should not be amateurs at their tasks but individuals who had gone through a course of special training; she upheld the principle of lay education; she acclaimed a discipline based on persuasion, gentleness and kindness.

After all this useful labor, Juana Manso reached the end of her life practically alone in the struggle, as she had always been. Those who approached her sincerely and affectionately, with words of encouragement, were few. Sarmiento was

perhaps her only friend. She found in him the firm support and intelligent understanding which her contemporaries denied her, but this authoritative appreciation of her methods and ability was enough for her. She knew that the recognition and comprehension of some men confer more honor and are worth far more than those of a whole nation. She found sufficient encouragement in Sarmiento, the only one who was not frightened off by that "poor, fat, old woman," according to her own words; the only one who understood the beauty of her ideals, the sincerity of her attitude, her capacity for sacrifice, the noble disinterestedness of her campaign and her work. The other words of encouragement that reached her came from abroad. The praise of Horace Mann and his wife consoled her for the lack of understanding of her own country; the stimulating message of Cúneo helped her to forget the insults that she heard every day; the admiration of the Chilean José Bernardo Suárez comforted her on more than one occasion.

A stern and implacable destiny pursued Juana Manso until the day of her death.

She lived to the last instant of her life alone, sadly alone, but never defeated.

On the afternoon of April 24, 1875, at the precise hour at which this illustrious teacher was dying in a humble home in Buenos Aires, a singular and unprecedented scene was taking place at the Women's Normal School. Classes had been suspended and the student body had assembled in the auditorium to listen to the words of the principal, Augusto Krause. He did not announce to them the death of this intelligent woman. That event was not even noted on that afternoon. He spoke of the necessity for definitely abolishing the practice of corporal punishment from the classrooms. He affirmed with immense satisfaction that from that time on there would be no more such punishment and then, with great solemnity, he remitted the chastisement that had been imposed upon a student.

It was a strange and symbolical coincidence. At the very instant of the death of Juana Manso, when her spirit left this earth, she began to live in immortality through the practical realization of her teachings.

Pan American Union NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Election of Officers

AT THE MEETING of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union held November 1, the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, was re-elected Chairman of the Board for the coming year. At the same time the Hon. Héctor David Castro, the Minister of El Salvador, was elected Vice Chairman.

Inter-American Commission of Women

Señora Ana Rosa de Martínez Guerrero was by unanimous vote of the Board elected Chairman of the Inter-American Commission of Women, to hold office until the Ninth International Conference of American States. The appointment was made in accordance with the provisions of a resolution adopted last year by the Eighth Conference, which authorized the Pan American Union to designate the Chairman from among the representatives on the Commission appointed by the respective governments. Señora de Martínez Guerrero is president of the Unión Argentina de Mujeres, an organization interested in the civil and political rights of Argentine women. Señorita Minerva Bernardino of the Dominican Republic was named Vice Chairman of the Commission.

Nineteen governments have appointed their representatives on the Commission, in accordance with the terms of the resolution passed at Lima. These members are as follows:

ARGENTINA: Señora Ana Rosa de Martínez Guerrero

BOLIVIA: Señora Carmen Bustamante de Lozada
BRAZIL: Senhora Rosalina Coelho Lisboa de Miller

CHILE: Señora Marta Vergara de Chamudes

COLOMBIA: Señora María Currea de Aya

CUBA: Señora Elena Mederos de González

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC: Señorita Minerva Bernardino

ECUADOR: Señora Rosa Huerta de Viteri Lafronte

EL SALVADOR: Señora Elena de Castro

GUATEMALA: Señorita Ana R. Espinoza

HONDURAS: Señora Mariana de Cáceres

MEXICO: Señora Amalia Caballero de Castillo Ledón

NICARAGUA: Señora Hena Lagos de De Bayle

PANAMA: Señora Esther Neira de Calvo

PARAGUAY: Señora Carmen G. de Ynsfrán

PERU: Señorita Belén de Osma

UNITED STATES: Miss Mary Winslow

URUGUAY: Doctora Sofía Álvarez de Demicheli

VENEZUELA: Señorita Luisa Martínez

The Inter-American Commission of Women was created at the Sixth International Conference of American States, which met at Habana in 1928. Under the terms of the resolution adopted at Lima, the Inter-American Commission of Women is charged with the permanent study of all problems concerning American women. It is also requested to report to the Governing Board before each conference on the problems concerning women which, in its judgment, should be considered by the conference.

Inter-American Neutrality Committee

The governments of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, the United States, and Venezuela were requested by the Board to appoint one member each of the Inter-American Neutrality Committee

provided for in a resolution adopted at the Meeting of the Foreign Ministers of the American Republics held at Panama in September. At the same time, the Governing Board designated Rio de Janeiro as the seat of the Committee.

According to the provisions of the resolution adopted at Panama, the Committee, which will function for the duration of the European War, will be composed of seven experts on international law who will study and formulate recommendations with respect to the problems of neutrality. The recommendations of the Committee will be transmitted through the Pan American Union to the governments of the American Republics.

Committee of Experts on the Codification of International Law

Dr. Alberto Ulloa of Peru and Dr. Raimundo Rivas of Colombia were elected members of the Committee of Experts on the Codification of International Law.

The Committee of Experts was created by a resolution on the Codification of International Law, which was adopted at the Seventh International Conference of American States held at Montevideo in 1933, and provided for a committee of seven to carry on preparatory work for the codification of international law on the American continent. (This Committee reports to the International Conference of American Jurists, established as the International Commission of Jurisconsults by the Third Conference at Rio de Janeiro in 1906 and known by that name until the Eighth Conference at Lima in 1938. The International Conference of American Jurists, composed of members with plenipotentiary powers, will continue the work of codification already accomplished by the International Conferences of American States.)

At the Lima Conference the membership of the Committee of Experts was increased from seven to nine. The Committee is now as follows: Drs. Afranio de Mello Franco, of Brazil; Alberto Cruchaga Ossa, of Chile; Carlos Saavedra Lamas, of Argentina; Luis Anderson Morúa, of Costa Rica; Eduardo Suárez, of Mexico; J. Reuben Clark, of the United States; Edwin M. Borchard, of the United States; Alberto Ulloa, of Peru; and Raimundo Rivas, of Colombia.

Division of Labor and Social Information

The establishment of a Division of Labor and Social Information in the Pan American Union was authorized by the Governing Board. The action of the Board was taken on the basis of a proposal made last spring by the Mexican Ambassador, the Hon. Francisco Castillo Nájera.

The report presented to the Governing Board by the special committee which had been appointed to consider the matter contemplates a broad and comprehensive program of action by the new division. It is expected that it will serve as a center of information on labor matters in the American Republics; maintain contact with labor organizations in the different countries; undertake the compilation and publication of information and data on labor activities and related legislation in the various American Republics, and answer inquiries on such subjects.

Pan American Hymn

At the request of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Argentina, the date for ending the competition for the Pan American Hymn of Peace was extended from April 1 to May 1, 1940.

The Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee

The inaugural session of this Committee, created for the duration of the European war by the recent Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Panama, was held at the Pan American Union on November 15, 1939, in compliance with the terms of the respective resolution. An account of the session will appear in the next issue of the BULLETIN.

Inter-American Committee of Experts on Nature Protection and Wild Life Preservation

The Eighth International Conference of American States, which met at Lima, Peru, in December 1938, adopted a resolution designed to extend, on a continental basis, legislation providing for the protection and preservation of the fauna and flora of this hemisphere.

Pursuant to the provisions of this resolution, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union recommended the establishment of the Inter-American Committee of Experts on Nature Protection and Wild Life Preservation. Each of the governments, members of the Union, has been requested to appoint one representa-

tive on the Committee, and to designate such advisers to its respective representative as it deems necessary.

The Committee will hold its first meeting in Washington from May 13-16, 1940, and the Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union is preparing the material that will serve as a basis for the discussions. The division is also compiling a summary of legislation and government reports on the wild life of the different countries, based on the answers to a questionnaire sent to all the interested governments last spring.

President Roosevelt has approved the appointment of Dr. Alexander Wetmore, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, as representative of the United States on the Committee. An advisory committee, to assist the United States representative, has been selected; its members are Dr. Ira N. Gabrielson, Chief, Bureau of Biological Survey, Department of the Interior; Mr. Victor H. Calahane, Acting Chief, Wild Life Division, National Park Service, Department of the Interior; Dr. H. L. Shantz, Chief, Division of Wild Life Management, Forest Service, Department of Agriculture; and Mr. Samuel W. Boggs, Geographer, Department of State.

PAN AMERICAN *Progress*

Eighth American Scientific Congress

The Seventh American Scientific Congress, which met in Mexico in 1935, left the date and place of meeting of the Eighth to the discretion of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. In view of the fact that in April 1940 the Union will celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of its founding, it seemed appropriate to hold the Eighth Congress at Washington in that year. The United States agreed to act as host through a joint resolution of Congress, approved on June 13, 1939, which authorized and requested the President to invite the governments of the countries, members of the Union, to send delegates to Washington. The dates set are from May 10-18, 1940.

The Organizing Committee, which will collaborate with the Department of State in formulating definite plans for the Congress, is as follows: The Hon. Sumner Welles, Under Secretary of State, chairman; Dr. Warren Kelchner, Acting Chief, Division of International Conferences, Department of State, vice chairman; Dr. Alexander Wetmore, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, secretary; Dr. C. G. Abbot, Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution; Dr. Isaiah Bowman, President, Johns Hopkins University; Dr. Vannevar Bush, President, Carnegie Institution, Washington; Dr. Ben M. Cherrington, Chief, Division of Cultural Relations, Department of State; Mr. Laurence Duggan, Chief, Division of the American Republics, Department of State; Dr. Ross G. Harrison, Chairman, National Research Council; Dr. Waldo G. Leland, Secretary, American Council of Learned

Societies; Mr. Archibald MacLeish, Librarian of Congress; Dr. Thomas Parran, Surgeon General, United States Public Health Service; Dr. Stuart A. Rice, Chairman, Central Statistical Board; Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General, Pan American Union; and Dr. James Brown Scott, Trustee and Secretary, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Dr. Wetmore has also been designated Secretary General of the Congress.

At a meeting of the Organizing Committee held on October 23, it was decided that the Congress will be divided into the following sections, with a chairman, assisted by a vice chairman, secretary, and section committee, in charge of each: I, anthropological sciences; II, biological sciences; III, geological sciences; IV, agriculture and conservation; V, public health and medicine; VI, physical and chemical sciences; VII, statistics; VIII, history and geography; IX, international law, public law and jurisprudence; X, economics and sociology; and XI, education.

Exhibit of Peruvian Colonial Paintings.

Through the courtesy of Mrs. Frank B. Freyer of Denver, Colorado, the Pan American Union had on exhibit from October 11-20, 1939, ten fine examples of Peruvian colonial painting, of the School of Cuzco. The opening of the exhibit coincided with the conference of leaders in the field of art, arranged by the State Department, to discuss the possibilities of increased relations in this field with the other American republics. These

paintings were described in an article entitled *A Peruvian Art Collection in Washington*, by Paul McNeill, in the August 1936 issue of the BULLETIN.

Academic exchange between the United States and other American Republics

The official exchange of professors, teachers and graduate students between the Governments of the United States and other American Republics has been set in motion by the Department of State with the cooperation of the United States Office of Education. The exchange will take place with those countries which have ratified the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations, signed at Buenos Aires on December 23, 1936; this convention provides for the annual exchange of one professor and two teachers or graduate students between the ratifying states. So far the convention is in effect between the following countries: Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, the United States, and Venezuela.

The exchange program is founded upon the thesis that peace and orderly progress are best grounded upon the mutual understanding of the fundamental social, political, and economic ideals of all nations.

No limitation as to color, sex or creed will be made in the nominations for the exchange posts. The utmost possible latitude has been allowed in the field of intellectual activity in which professors, teachers and students may engage, in order to encourage applications from those interested in any field of learning, facilities for which exist in the country in which the applicant is interested. Exchanges are available for professors, teachers or gradu-

ate students in the humanities, natural sciences, social sciences, law, medicine, pharmacy, journalism, technology, and engineering. All preliminary work in the selection of nominees for professorships and fellowships is being handled by the Office of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C., which is now considering applications. "Teachers" as distinguished from "professors" is understood to refer to teachers in primary or secondary schools.

Specific requisites adopted by the Government as qualifications for applicants include proof of American citizenship; good health; in the case of teachers or graduate students, references as to good moral character and intellectual ability, together with suitable personal qualities. The upper age limit for fellowships is set at 35 years. Applicants must have practical reading, writing and speaking knowledge of the language of the country for which application is made. In the case of professorships, ability to lecture in the language of the country for which application is made is desirable. In the case of Brazil, candidates offering Spanish or French instead of Portuguese will be considered. Applicants for exchange professorships must occupy a position of professorial rank in a college, university or technical institution and must have done scholarly work in the field of their specialization.

At the time of making application; the student or teacher must have completed a curriculum normally requiring five years beyond the secondary school, although in exceptional cases, a selection may be made from those who have completed a four year course.

Every year each of the ratifying countries will prepare, from the applications received for the student or teacher exchange fellowships, a panel of five names for each of the countries with which it has entered

into the exchange relationship. From this list of five the receiving government will select two to whom the award will be granted.

In the case of exchange professorships, from the applications received a complete list of professors available for exchange service from the outstanding universities, scientific institutions and technological schools of the country will be prepared and communicated by the United States to each of the other governments by January 1, 1940. Additional lists will be submitted in alternate years. From this list each of the other countries will arrange to select a visiting professor who will give lectures in various centers, conduct regular courses of instruction, or pursue special research in some designated institution and who, it is expected, will in other appropriate ways promote better understanding between the nations cooperating. Preference will be given to teaching rather than to research work in the selection of nominees.

Expenses involved in the exchange program are shared by the participating governments. In the case of fellowships, the nominating government will pay the round-trip travel costs to the country chosen, together with other incidental expenses of the graduate students or teachers selected. The receiving government will pay tuition and subsidiary expenses, together with board and lodging at the institution designated. All expenses incident to the exchange of professors will be met by the sending government.

Message of the President of Mexico

On September 1, 1939, President Cárdenas of Mexico presented his fifth annual message to Congress. After summarizing the principles that had determined the policies

of his administration, he discussed at length the economic situation of the country during the year.

The activities of the Bank of Mexico were modified by a decree amending the banking laws, which was issued on December 28, 1938. The decree abolished the authorization of the bank to issue silver certificates, enabled it to discount Treasury certificates of the Federal Government guaranteed by non-earmarked federal taxes, permitted it to revalorize its metallic reserves, and modified its charter to permit it to grant new credits to affiliated banks for stimulating industry, commerce, and agriculture. The beneficial effects of the new legislation were reflected in the establishment of six new private credit institutions, and in an increase of 64,000,000 pesos in sight deposits, while the total bank obligations of the country increased by 92,000,000 pesos.

The bank of Mexico increased its operations with allied credit institutions by approximately 4,000,000 pesos. The capital of other national institutions showed an increase of about 25,000,000 pesos, a sum used to reorganize on a broader basis ejido credit societies, labor cooperatives, people's credit unions, and local societies of small-scale farmers.

In discussing the activities of the Treasury, President Cardenas stated that of the taxes collected in foreign currency, as the result of petroleum sales operations 32,000,000 pesos were allotted outside the budget to six official institutions, as follows: National Irrigation Commission, 19,217,000; Federal Electricity Commission, 7,638,000; Department of Communications, 2,188,000; Agriculture and Promotion, 342,000; National Bank of Agricultural Credit, 394,000; and Mortgage Bank, 2,242,000. These appropriations were made to provide the machinery, industrial plants, and other equipment necessary to

increase production and improve public services. For the same reason the Federal Government spent more than 32,000,000 pesos in the construction of highways; of this amount, 7,800,000 pesos represent Government cooperation in the construction of state roads.

Revenues exceeded budget estimates by some 37,000,000 pesos for the period January 1 to August 31, 1939. The total budget for the fiscal year September 1, 1938, to August 31, 1939, was 488,000,000 pesos; from this amount, in addition to meeting the ordinary expenses of government, 167,000,000 pesos were spent on the public debt and on various projects, which the President listed. The main items on his list were, in round numbers: Public debt, 63,500,000; irrigation projects, 24,700,000; railway construction, 17,900,000; highway construction and upkeep, 11,700,000; National Bank of Ejido Credit, 10,250,000; and port works, 5,800,000.

When the price of silver abroad fell from \$0.43 to \$0.35 an ounce, some alarm was felt in financial circles, and there was a sudden demand for gold and foreign exchange. The Bank of Mexico, rather than sacrifice part of its reserves to maintain the peso at 4.99 to the dollar, as it had done since February 2, 1939, retired from the market. But notwithstanding the fact that the fall in the price of silver meant a decrease in the foreign exchange resulting from its sale, the increased demand for other metals, especially those used in industry, counteracted the adverse effects to a great extent. Because of the new rates of exchange, exports have increased and imports diminished, thus accelerating the production of export merchandise and at the same time intensifying the consumption of national goods.

After pointing out again that more than 63,000,000 pesos had been expended to meet payments due on the public [internal]

debt, and explaining that all interest and amortization payments on the highway bonds had been promptly made, the President stated that payments on the 40-year debt had also been met though not in cash, because the coupons as they become due are accepted in payment of certain federal taxes.

More than a third of the message was devoted to a discussion of the petroleum question. After summarizing the events leading up to the expropriation decree of March 18, 1938,¹ and its immediate consequences, President Cárdenas spoke of the measures taken to deal with the situation.

A provisional organization, the Central Administrative Council, has been replaced by two entities, *Petróleos Mexicanos*, and *Distribuidora de Petróleos Mexicanos*, the former to deal with the technical and administrative aspects of the industry, and the latter with the marketing of the products in Mexico and abroad. Later legislation relating to the industry has included measures to improve its organization by doing away with duplication of effort, making possible the transfer of workers from one region to another, and in general strengthening cooperation between the Government and the industry.

Among the steps taken to improve conditions for the workers the President cited better medical service, new schools, better communications, including new post offices and telegraph stations, and a more adequate supply of drinking water at working centers.

He pointed out, however, that the prices obtained for Mexican petroleum since expropriation were lower than those received when the industry was in private hands, but in spite of that fact, 20 percent of the sales receipts has gone into a

¹ See summary of President Cárdenas' message of Sept. 1, 1938, in the *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, November 1938.

fund established to pay for the property expropriated.

Production in the oil fields was at first reduced 45 percent, and exports 85 percent, in view of the restricted markets available immediately after the Government took over the industry in 1938, but the need for such limitation has passed, and present contracts are making it necessary to increase production and improve transportation methods. Production for the calendar year 1938 was 82.1 percent of that in 1937, and exports 59 percent, while domestic consumption was 6 percent greater. Exports during the first five months of 1939 were 77 percent of the exports for the corresponding period in 1937, and are steadily increasing.

Recent favorable developments have justified efforts to drill new wells and discover other oil-producing regions. New wells have been sunk on the Isthmus of Tehuantepec and at Poza Rica; during the remainder of 1939 and the first half of 1940, more wells will be drilled at these two fields and at El Ébano.

The President concluded his discussion of the petroleum industry by saying that the plans to increase production and improve storage, transportation, and refining facilities make the outlook bright for this phase of national economy.

During the previous 12 months, the Government made 1,317 land grants, totaling more than 6,000,000 acres, to 106,829 farmers. To attend to the boundary disputes arising from land grants in various regions of the country, a special section, the Oficina Deslindadora de Comunidades Indígenas, was established on January 1, 1939, in the Agrarian Bureau.

One of the most pressing agrarian problems was that of the Yaqui Indians, who were claiming by force lands in the State of Sonora on which communities had been established or industries developed. They

have been given a grant of nearly 1,000,000 acres in that region, which will be sufficient to provide for the needs of all Yaquis in Mexico and the United States, once irrigation projects have been completed. Those members of the tribe who have settled on their new lands have shown a will and capacity for work and a great interest in education.

The repatriation of Mexican migratory workers in the United States is another matter of concern to the Government. Besides those who have returned to their original homes or settled in the Territory of Northern Lower California, where the state government has made special provision for them, 627 families, of 3,750 individuals, have been placed in "18 de Marzo", a colony or settlement established by the Government in Matamoros, Tamaulipas. The 900 males over 16 years in this colony have each been given 25 acres of arable land. The cost of repatriation, transportation, and settlement of this colony amounted to 464,000 pesos, and some further outlay will be necessary before the colonists are self-supporting.

The budget for the coming year should therefore include a larger appropriation for dealing with repatriation and the establishment of other settlements.

Several phases of public works were mentioned briefly in the message. Work on three great dams—on the Yaqui, Nazas, and Azúcar Rivers—is going forward. A large power plant at Ixtapantongo, in Valle de Bravo, is being installed, 106 miles of a railway to unite Lower California with the rest of the country have been completed, and port works at Progreso, Acapulco, and Mazatlán have proceeded satisfactorily.

The President closed his message with brief mention of the Navy, the legislation before Congress, and the presidential election in 1940.

Reciprocal Trade Agreement between the United States and Venezuela

The Department of State of the United States has issued the following statement concerning the Reciprocal Trade Agreement with Venezuela, signed by representatives of the two governments at Caracas on November 6, 1939, and designed to maintain and improve the mutually beneficial trade relations between the two countries:

This is the twenty-second trade agreement negotiated by the United States under the provisions of the Trade Agreements Act of June 12, 1934, as extended on March 1, 1937, and is the eleventh to be concluded with another American Republic. Upon entry into force of the Agreement with Venezuela, our trade with that nation and the other nineteen countries with which trade agreements are now in effect will constitute about 60 percent of total United States trade with the world, on the basis of trade statistics for 1938.

Under the terms of a *modus vivendi* signed the same day, the substantive provisions of the Agreement, including the general provisions and the schedules of concessions, will enter provisionally into force on December 16, 1939, pending ratification of the agreement by the Venezuelan Government. The Agreement will enter into full force thirty days after exchange of the instrument of ratification of the Venezuelan Government and the proclamation¹ of the agreement by the President of the United States. It will remain in force, subject to certain special provisions, until December 15, 1942, and may continue in force indefinitely thereafter until six months after notice of termination has been given by either country.

Since May 12, 1938, trade relations between the United States and Venezuela have been regulated by a Provisional Commercial Agreement providing for reciprocal unconditional most-favored-nation treatment. The Reciprocal Trade Agreement, which supplants the previous arrangement, continues and strengthens the provisions for unconditional most-favored-nation treatment and in addition provides for reciprocal tariff concessions. These concessions include benefits for United States exports in the form of reductions or bindings of numerous Venezuelan tariff rates.² In

return, Venezuela receives reductions in duties or guarantees of the continuance of existing tariff treatment on a smaller number of products which represent a large percentage of its exports to the United States.

Concessions, including bindings, obtained from Venezuela cover such important American exports to that country as wheat flour, oatmeal, prepared milks, hog lard, lumber, iron and steel products; automotive products and accessories; radios, refrigerators, engines, pharmaceutical products and paints. These products represented in 1938 about 36 percent of total United States exports to Venezuela, or about \$19,000,000 out of \$52,000,000.

Concessions granted to Venezuela include a reduction of 50 percent in the import tax on crude petroleum and fuel oil on an annual quota of imports not in excess of 5 percent of the total quantity of crude petroleum processed in refineries in the continental United States during the preceding calendar year. The other concessions granted to Venezuela consist chiefly of guarantees of continued duty-free entry on fuel oil used for vessel bunkers and on a list of tropical or semi-tropical products of which Venezuela is a supplier.

The statement goes on to describe the general character of Venezuelan economy and to summarize the foreign trade of the country in general and with the United States in particular:

The petroleum industry is today the principal factor in the economic life of Venezuela. As late as 1914 petroleum production was negligible and the country's economy was based largely on coffee and cacao. In 1938 the output of Venezuelan oil wells reached a record total of about 188 million barrels of crude oil and approximately 90 percent of the Republic's exports consisted of petroleum and its derivatives.

Venezuela's area of approximately 352,000 square miles supports a population of 3,500,000 and is divided into three main economic areas: the petroleum district in the western part of the country around Lake Maracaibo and the city of the same name; the agricultural and pastoral district in central Venezuela with its chief center of population at Caracas, the capital, and its production of coffee, cacao, sugar cane, tobacco, corn and tropical fruits and vegetables; and the Orinoco region in eastern Venezuela which is known for its forest products, such as balata, tonka beans, divi-divi, hard woods and medicinal

¹ Made November 16, 1939.

² For convenience, the word "concessions" is used in this statement to include both these classes of benefits.

plants. The recently developed oil fields in eastern Venezuela are also becoming increasingly important.

Manufacturing is relatively unimportant in Venezuela, but the following articles now produced in considerable quantities are indicative of the industrial trend: petroleum derivatives, cotton textiles, leather, saw mill products, sugar, flour, corn meal, cigars, cigarettes, footwear, matches, glass, paper, dairy products, lard, soap, beverages, bakery products, confectionery, and furniture.

The character of the economy of Venezuela is reflected in the composition of the country's foreign trade. The most important imports are manufactured products, particularly machinery, equipment and supplies for the petroleum industry. Other important import groups are: foodstuffs, including wheat flour and lard; iron and steel manufactures; automotive vehicles, parts and accessories; cotton fabrics; rayon and wool textiles; electrical apparatus, including radios, refrigerators, and storage batteries; drugs and pharmaceutical products; and lumber.

In the export trade, crude petroleum is by far the most important item, representing about 84 percent of merchandise shipments to foreign countries. If petroleum derivatives are included, this figure approaches 90 percent. Coffee accounts for about 5 percent of exports and cacao for less than 2 percent, but these products are of great importance in the economy of central Venezuela. Other exports include cattle, hides, skins, balata, pearls, divi-divi, tonka beans, hard woods, and bananas.

The United States supplies about one-half of Venezuela's imports. During 1938 American participation amounted to 56.2 percent as compared with 11.9 percent for Germany and 7.0 percent for the United Kingdom. Excepting shipments of crude petroleum from Venezuela to the nearby Netherland West Indies for refining and reexport, the United States provides the chief market for exports from Venezuela. During 1938 the United States absorbed 13.2 percent of total Venezuelan exports as compared with 3.3 percent for the United Kingdom, the next most important consumer of Venezuelan products following the Netherland West Indies and the United States. Although the Islands of Curaçao and Aruba take about three-fourths of Venezuela's total exports in the form of shipments of crude petroleum for their refineries, a considerable part of this Venezuelan oil is later reexported to the United States. Approximately 95 percent of exports of petroleum products from the Netherland West Indies to the United States is produced from Venezuelan crude oil.

Trade between the United States and Venezuela has undergone a sharp increase during recent years, with an expansion of both exports and imports. Total trade between the two countries in 1938 was valued at about \$72,300,000 as compared with \$69,200,000 in 1937, a depression low of \$26,600,000 in 1933, an average of \$59,000,000 for the period 1926-30 and an average of \$16,500,000 for the period 1911-15.

The trade of the United States with Venezuela during the period 1911-38 is shown below:

United States trade with Venezuela, 1911-38

[Values in thousands of dollars]

Yearly Average or Year	Exports ¹ to Venezuela	General Imports from Venezuela	Year or Period	Exports ¹ to Venezuela	General Imports from Venezuela
1911-15.....	5,522	10,949	1931.....	15,645	26,845
1916-20.....	14,582	19,178	1932.....	10,229	20,294
1921-25.....	14,576	14,873	1933.....	13,115	13,450
1926-30.....	38,129	35,782	1934.....	19,281	22,120
1931-35.....	15,371	20,827	1935.....	18,585	21,428
1928.....	37,920	38,905	1936.....	24,079	26,258
1929.....	45,325	51,224	1937.....	46,445	22,770
1930.....	32,967	36,868	1938.....	52,278	20,035

¹ Includes reexports of foreign goods, a small fraction of the total.

Exports of American products to Venezuela have more than doubled during the last three years. This expansion of trade is due in large measure to increased activity in the petroleum industry. There have also been substantial

purchases of American supplies and equipment in connection with the Venezuelan Government's public works program.

Among the chief exports from the United States to Venezuela, in their approximate order of

importance, are: industrial machinery, including well and refinery machinery, construction and conveying machinery; iron and steel manufactures, including pipe, shapes, tanks, and wire products; automotive vehicles, parts and accessories; wheat flour, dairy products, oatmeal, lard, and canned fish; cotton, rayon and wool fabrics; electrical apparatus; lumber; medicinal and pharmaceutical preparations; paints; rubber tires, tubes and hose; leather; glass; paper products; and copper wire.

Direct merchandise imports into the United States from Venezuela amounted to \$20,035,000 in 1938 as compared with \$22,770,000 in 1937, a decrease of 12 percent, which was accounted for largely by smaller imports of goat and kid skins, cacao, and coffee. In 1938 about four-fifths of the direct imports in value consisted of 23,564,000 barrels of crude petroleum worth \$16,541,000, a small decrease from 1937. The fact should not be overlooked, however, as indicated above, that a large additional part of Venezuelan oil production reaches the United States indirectly. The bulk of the petroleum products credited in our import statistics to the Netherlands West Indies is produced from Venezuelan crude oil.

Coffee is the second most important commodity imported directly from Venezuela. Imports in 1938 were valued at \$1,963,000, a decline from the considerably higher values of \$3,286,000 in 1937 and \$4,909,000 in 1936. Imports of cacao from Venezuela declined in value in 1938 to \$759,000 as compared with \$1,695,000 in the previous year. Less important Venezuelan products imported into the United States during recent years were the following: balata, divi-divi tonka beans, orchid plants, barbasco or cube root, reptile skins, certain manures, and boxwood.

The nature and scope of the concessions granted by each country are summarized as follows:

Venezuela's present tariff policy reflects its dependence upon import duties as an important source of revenue, its program to diversify and extend agricultural and industrial production, and its desire to maintain development of the important petroleum industry. Under this policy, machinery, equipment and supplies for petroleum companies, certain mining and public utility enterprises and the Venezuelan Government are imported free of duty under special provisions.

Most consumer goods are dutiable, however, at relatively high tariff rates while capital goods, including machinery and building materials, if not free of duty under special provisions, are for the most part dutiable at moderate rates. The present Venezuelan tariff, which became effective on October 23, 1936, provided for numerous duty increases on "luxury" products and articles not considered necessities. Duties on so-called "necessities" were reduced in numerous instances.

The tariff advantages obtained from Venezuela under the present agreement cover a long list of agricultural and industrial products classified under 96 items of the Venezuelan tariff. On the basis of United States trade figures for 1938, exports to Venezuela of products covered by these 96 items represented a value of nearly \$19,000,000 and accounted for approximately 36 percent of total exports to Venezuela. Duty reductions in varying degree were obtained on 35 items, the most important of which include wheat flour, hog lard, lumber, furniture, and parts for agricultural machinery and implements. Assurances against less favorable customs treatment were obtained in the case of the remaining 61 items, important among which are prepared milks, oatmeal, hams and other food products; iron and steel products; automotive products and accessories; tires and tubes; radio sets and other electrical apparatus; office equipment; and paints.

By a Venezuelan decree of September 11, 1939, issued as an emergency measure to protect consumers against rising prices as a result of war conditions, the general tariff rates on certain food products were temporarily reduced. On two of the products included among those on which concessions were obtained in the trade agreement, hog lard and rolled oats, the rates of duty provided for by the emergency decree are lower than those specified in the trade agreement. In the case of those products, imports from the United States, will, while the emergency decree remains in force, receive the benefits of the rates provided therein, and whenever that decree is repealed, be dutiable at rates no higher than those set forth in the trade agreement. In the case of wheat flour, also included in the trade agreement, the general rate of duty was also reduced by the decree, but to a rate higher than that provided for in the trade agreement. Accordingly imports of wheat flour from the United States, at present dutiable at the rate set forth in the decree, will be subject to the lower rate specified in the trade agreement, when the agreement becomes effective.

Summary of tariff concessions obtained from Venezuela

	Number of items	Exports to Venezuela in 1938 from the United States	Percent of total exports to Venezuela from the United States
		(Thousands of dollars).	
A. Reductions in duty	35	5,122	9.8
B. Bindings	61	13,590	26.1
Total items upon which tariff concessions were obtained	96	18,712	35.9
Exports not subject to tariff concessions		33,357	64.1
Total exports of domestic merchandise from the United States to Venezuela		52,069	100.0

The tariff concessions granted by the United States to Venezuela cover 14 items which in 1938 accounted for 88.6 percent of the total value of United States imports from Venezuela. The concessions are of three types: *Reductions in tariffs* or

import taxes on four items, of which the most important are crude petroleum and fuel oil; *binding* of the present duty on one item, orchid plants; and *binding* on the free list of nine items. The table below summarizes these concessions:

Summary of tariff concessions made by the United States

	Number of items	Imports into the United States in 1938 from Venezuela	Percent of total imports into the United States from Venezuela
		(Thousands of dollars).	
A. Reductions in duty or import tax:			
Imports subject to customs quotas (crude petroleum and fuel oils derived from petroleum including gas oil and topped crude petroleum) ¹	2	14,965	74.6
Imports not subject to quota (ground barbasco root and tonka beans)	2	31	.2
Total of above	4	14,996	74.8
B. Bindings:			
Binding of present duty (orchid plants)	1	13	.1
Binding on free list ²	9	2,750	13.7
Total of above	10	2,763	13.8
Total items upon which tariff concessions are granted	14	17,759	88.6
Imports not subject to tariff concessions		2,295	11.4
Total imports into the United States from Venezuela		20,054	100.0

¹ For explanation of customs quota on petroleum and fuel oil, see paragraph below.

² Cocoa beans and shells; coffee; divi-divi; manures; gutta balata, crude; barbasco root, crude; crude petroleum, topped crude petroleum, and fuel oil for supplies of vessels, etc.; reptile skins, raw; boxwood in the log.

REDUCTIONS. The four items upon which duties or import taxes are reduced accounted for nearly 75 percent of total United States imports from Venezuela in 1938, the value of the imports of these items from Venezuela amounting to \$14,996,000. The outstanding commodities of

this group are crude petroleum and fuel oil, including gas oil and topped crude petroleum. These products are free of duty under the Tariff Act of 1930 but are subject to an import tax under Section 3422 of the Internal Revenue Code. The present agreement provides for the continu-

ance of the duty-free status of crude petroleum and fuel oil. The import tax is reduced by the agreement from $\frac{1}{2}$ c to $\frac{1}{4}$ c per gallon on an annual quota in any calendar year after 1938 not in excess of 5 percent of the total quantity of crude petroleum processed in refineries in the continental United States during the preceding calendar year. Imports in excess of the quota are subject to the full tax of $\frac{1}{2}$ c per gallon, which is bound against increase.

The two remaining items on which more favorable customs treatment was granted by the United States in the agreement are ground barbasco root and tonka beans, on which the duties were reduced from 10 percent to 5 percent *ad valorem* and from 25c per pound to 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ c per pound, respectively. Both of these are typical products of the tropical or semitropical zones and are not produced in the United States.

BINDINGS OF EXISTING TARIFF TREATMENT. The one product on which the present rate of duty was bound against increase by the United States in the agreement is orchid plants, dutiable at 15 percent *ad valorem*. These plants had previously been the subject of a concession in the trade agreement with the United Kingdom, effective January 1, 1939, in which agreement the duty was reduced from 25 percent to 15 percent *ad valorem*.

On the remaining 9 items in Schedule II, existing duty-free entry into the United States was bound against change. These items, most of which are tropical commodities not produced in the United States, are cacao, coffee, divi-divi, manures, crude gutta balata, crude barbasco or cube root, crude petroleum and fuel oil for ships' supplies, raw reptile skins and boxwood in the log.

American Republics raise rank of diplomatic missions

In view of their ever increasing relations the Governments of a number of American Republics have mutually agreed during the past twelve months to raise the rank of their respective diplomatic missions from Legations to Embassies.

The United States has three new Ambassadors in Latin America; the Hon. Spruille Braden in Bogotá, Colombia; the Hon. William Dawson in Panama; and the Hon. Frank P. Corrigan in Caracas, Venezuela. The first Ambassador of Co-

lombia in Washington was the Hon. Miguel López Pumarejo, who has recently been succeeded by the Hon. Gabriel Turbay. The former Ministers of Panama and Venezuela to the United States, the Hon. Augusto S. Boyd and the Hon. Diógenes Escalante, are now Ambassadors Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary.

With the intention of binding still closer the ties of friendship which unite them with the Government of Colombia, the Governments of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Panama, Peru and Venezuela have also raised to the rank of Embassy their diplomatic missions at Bogotá. The Colombian Government has in turn accredited ambassadors in Buenos Aires, Rio de Janeiro, Santiago, Quito, Panama City, Lima and Caracas. Through a mutual agreement the Government of Bolivia and the Governments of Chile, Mexico and Peru have taken similar action with respect to their missions. Agreements between Brazil and Venezuela and between Mexico and Peru to raise the rank of their representatives complete the list of recent changes.

Brazilian restrictions on foreign-language publications

The Brazilian Ministry of Justice and the Interior was given jurisdiction over the publication of books, pamphlets, magazines, newspapers, and bulletins in a foreign language by legislation passed in 1938 (decree-law No. 406 of May 8, Art. 95, and decree No. 3010 of August 20, Art. 272). According to a resolution of that Ministry, of July 18, 1939, permission to publish foreign-language newspapers, magazines, and other periodicals will be given only if a Portuguese translation accompanies the text. The measure does not apply to existing publications, except that to continue to have customs discounts on

imported paper they must be printed in Portuguese or accompanied by Portuguese translations.

An unofficial report states that at the time the decree was issued there were 60 newspapers in Brazil published in 10 foreign languages; the four leading ones were German (16), Syrian (11), Italian (9), and Japanese (8).

Brazilian assimilation of children born of foreign parents

A decree-law issued by President Getulio Vargas of Brazil, provides that all federal, state and municipal entities shall cooperate in the work of "completely adapting to the national environment Brazilians whose parents are aliens." In this task the National Security Council has been given the duty of proposing and passing upon administrative and legislative measures. The Ministry of Justice and Interior will be in charge of the enforcement of this and other laws enacted for the purpose and will coordinate the activities of the other Ministries in this connection. After consultation with the National Security Council, it will also suggest to the President whatever legislation is found to be necessary.

The Ministry of Education and Health will play an important part. In those regions where the majority of the inhabitants are children of aliens it will establish and subsidize schools where the teaching of Portuguese and of Brazilian history and geography will be emphasized. It will also be in charge of recruiting and training teachers to serve in these schools. Some of its duties will be to foster in such regions patriotic organizations devoted to physical culture, found libraries of works of national interest, encourage the celebration of civic holidays, and organize excursions to points of interest throughout the country.

The Ministry of Labor, Industry, and

Commerce, is responsible for carrying out the provisions of this and related legislation as regards workers; seeing that the legal ratio (at least two-thirds) of Brazilian employees is maintained in all agricultural, industrial, commercial, and credit organizations; and having workers take part in civic celebrations.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs will keep the National Security Council informed of measures taken by diplomatic and consular agents abroad to encourage immigrants to go to Brazil.

The Immigration and Colonization Council, directly or through cooperating organizations, will avoid the concentration of immigrants from one region in any one state or section; prevent foreign companies or their agents from acquiring property to be used as large landed estates; and keep foreigners from absorbing Brazilian-owned properties in sections set apart for colonization.

The decree-law makes pre-military courses compulsory in all secondary schools, and forbids any school to be run by foreigners, except in cases explicitly provided for by law and in the case of religious orders that maintain schools in many countries, without affiliation with any one nationality. Special permission from the President of Brazil must be obtained for minors under 18 years of age to travel or remain abroad unless accompanied by their parents or other responsible adults.

The use of foreign languages is forbidden in public offices, in barracks, and during military service; this provision does not include correspondence, publications issued for foreign consumption, or relations with foreign missions working in the country on official invitation.

Federal or state government authorities will settle Brazilian families in regions where persons of non-Brazilian descent are clustered.

Peru takes measures to guard against effects of war

Indicative of the measures taken by several Latin American countries to prevent dislocations in their economic life as a result of the European conflict are two laws recently issued by the Government of Peru. One of them, Law No. 8951 of September 3, 1939, provides that the Government, through decrees or other administrative measures, shall have the right to place limitations on the freedom of trade and industry and to issue the necessary measures to reduce prices of necessities while a state of war exists between the European powers and the normal economic and social life of the country is affected thereby. In addition to these general powers the law prohibits increases in the price of articles of prime necessity and basic commodities in general; building materials; and products manufactured in Peru with national raw materials, as well as those manufactured with foreign materials, unless the increase is authorized by the Government. It also prohibits the discharge, or the lowering of salaries and wages without cause, of employees and laborers; the unjustified paralysis of building projects and commercial and industrial activities; the exportation of articles of prime necessity without Government authorization; and the formation of trusts, cartels, combinations, agreements, etc., to increase the price of articles of prime necessity, raw materials, or analogous products and all speculation with securities or commodities which may affect the social interest. Severe penalties are provided for violations—imprisonment for 30 days to five years and fines from 50 to 20,000 soles. Foreigners who violate the law will also be subject to deportation.

To enforce these measures Law No. 8952 creates a Bureau of Supervision of Social

Welfare, under the Ministry of Public Health, Labor and Social Welfare, of which Dr. Jorge Fernández Stoll has been appointed Director.

To carry out the duties of the new organization—to dictate the measures necessary to preserve and improve social wellbeing, and to coordinate and harmonize the factors entering into production, distribution, and consumption with regard to the interests of society—the Supervisor of Social Welfare has authority over the price of necessities; rents; lands cultivated for the production of foodstuffs; employment and wages of workers; and the importation and exportation of articles of prime necessity, raw materials, and machinery that might have an undesirable effect on production or existing stocks, and consumption. He will also coordinate commercial and industrial private activities in the interests of the community, and may forbid industrial and commercial monopolies.

Parent-Teachers Association in Nicaragua

The first Parent-Teachers Association in Nicaragua was established on July 9, 1939, in the Costa Rica School in Managua. The principal of the school, Srta. Clementina Cabezas, and the teachers were instrumental in organizing the first meeting, which was attended by a large number of parents eager for greater cooperation between the school and the home. It is expected that similar organizations will be established in other schools.

Winter art course in Mexico

The third session of the Art School at San Miguel Allende, Guanajuato, Mexico, will be held from January 15 to March 15,

1940. The town, founded in 1554, retains its colonial quality and splendid architecture. The school is a part of the Centro de Estudios Pedagogicos e Hispanoamericanos de México, founded by Dr. Salomón de la Selva in September 1937, and given official standing by the national Department of Education.

For two months during the summers of 1938 and 1939 the Art School held successful sessions, with Dr. Felipe Cossio del Pomar of Peru as director. The XVIIth century convent of Las Monjas was given to the school by the Mexican government for its headquarters, where studios, conference rooms, a large dining hall, and kitchen have been arranged to make it an attractive school center and workshop.

The courses offered for the 1940 winter session (January 15–March 15) include painting, fresco, sculpture, woodcarving, blockprinting and etching, ceramics, Spanish, and weaving, taught by teachers who have won recognition in their respective fields. The faculty is composed of Dr. Cossio del Pomar, Stirling Dickinson, who is also assistant director of the school, José Chávez Morado, Angélica Archipenko, Simón Ybarra, and Fortino Guerrero. There will be guest lecturers to give a further understanding and appreciation of Pan American culture and history, and special field trips to obtain first hand information. These lectures and field trips, which are of general interest, will be open to visitors who are not enrolled in the school. Accommodations are in the new Hotel San Francisco.

Further information about the school and its 1940 program may be obtained from Mr. Stirling Dickinson, 1518 Astor Street, Chicago, Illinois. The BULLETIN has the pleasure of reproducing on the cover of this issue one of his block prints from *Westward from Rio*, of which he is joint author with Heath Bowman.

The Peruvian Cancer Institute

A National Cancer Institute, with headquarters in Lima, was created by a law recently issued in Peru. The new organization, which will function under the Ministry of Public Health, Labor, and Social Welfare, will offer both out-patient and hospital service for sufferers from cancer and other malignant growths, and serve as a laboratory for advanced research.

The director of the Institute will be a Presidential appointee, who will have the technical advice of a Superior Cancer Council. The organization and duties of the Council will be specified later.

The funds with which the Institute will operate include a lump sum of 323,213 gold soles, an annual appropriation in the national budget and certain revenues from specified existing taxes. The Government is authorized by the law to use this money for constructing, equipping, and maintaining a building in Lima for the Institute and gradually establishing other cancer preventive centers and services in different parts of the republic.

Experimental schools in Santiago, Chile

The experimental elementary schools in Santiago, Chile, established in 1929, are celebrating their tenth anniversary this year. There are at present three experimental schools in Chile, of seven originally established: one for boys, another for girls and a third for mentally retarded children.

The Salvador Sanfuentes Experimental School for Boys is striving to adapt in Chile the successful experiments in primary education carried on abroad, in order to incorporate them into the school system of the country. Three different series of courses are given in this school during the first five years of primary studies. The

first series constitutes a modernized school which keeps the internal organization and methods of work of the ordinary primary school but follows the general principles of the socialized school. The second is an intermediate school which follows the unit method. The third is a progressive school in which the teaching is done by groups. In the sixth year two courses are given devoted respectively to cultural and vocational guidance. The boys' school also has a special course for problem children, a series of courses to develop special abilities, and a psycho-pedagogical laboratory.

The Experimental School for Girls was established to adapt the Dalton Plan to Chilean conditions during the fourth to the sixth year of primary school. It was organized by an American teacher, Miss Carlotta Keefe, a collaborator of Helen Parkhurst, author of the plan, and directed until 1930 by Mrs. Lucy Wilson. In that year four of the experimental schools were abandoned and the girls' school enlarged its experimental scope. Since 1930 the school has been under the direction of Señorita Aída Parada H., one of the Chilean primary school teachers sent abroad to study in 1927.

The school for mentally retarded children was organized by Mr. Lloyd Papsen, who directed it for the first year; then it was taken over by the present principal, Señor José Flores, upon completion of his postgraduate work in the United States.

Mexican National Committee for Mothers and Children

The Secretary of Public Welfare of Mexico, Sr. Silvestre Guerrero, invited State Governors and leaders in welfare activities throughout the republic to attend a meeting in Mexico City last July to establish the National Committee for Mothers and Children. The meeting appointed a Na-

tional Committee, of which Dr. Guillermo Lechuga is chairman, drafted the regulations of the national committee, and decided upon the general principles to be followed in the organization and functioning of the state and municipal committees.

Madeira-Mamoré Association

On September 1 and 2, 1939, the members of the Madeira-Mamoré Association met at the Hotel McAlpin in New York City. The membership of this Association is comprised of the men who served in Brazil during the period 1907-13 in the construction of the Madeira-Mamoré Railroad between the heights of Porto Velho, Amazonas, through the jungle to Guajaramirim, Matto Grosso. About fifty of the men who thirty years ago helped Brazil in solving that great engineering problem came to the reunion from the United States and some of the Latin American countries.

The President of the Association, J. Y. Bayliss of Richmond, Virginia, and the Secretary, E. A. Smith, Newportville, Pennsylvania, were elected for another term. It is the purpose of the Association to meet again next year.

New Chief of Travel Division of Pan American Union

Francisco J. Hernández, of the Editorial Division, became Chief of the Travel Division on September 1, 1939. A native of Puerto Rico and graduate of the George Washington University, Washington, D. C. Mr. Hernández has been with the Pan American Union since 1933, and prior to that time had varied experience in the fields of business, law, journalism and publicity.

Mr. Hernández fills the vacancy created in July by the death of José Tercero.

NECROLOGY

CÉSAR JULIO RODRÍGUEZ.—Lawyer, professor, and statesman of Colombia. Member of the National Chamber of Deputies and National Senate; secretary of the Ministry of Public Works during the administration of President Carlos E. Restrepo; first rector (president) of the Free University; member of the commission sent to Ecuador in 1894, at the request of President Alfaro, to advise on the reorgan-

ization of the educational system of that Republic; professor of public international law and of civics in the Colegio de La Merced. Died in Bogotá on August 12, 1939.

ANTONIO BARBERENA.—Engineer and statesman of Nicaragua. Minister of the Treasury during President Moncada's administration. Died in Granada, Nicaragua, July 22, 1939.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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